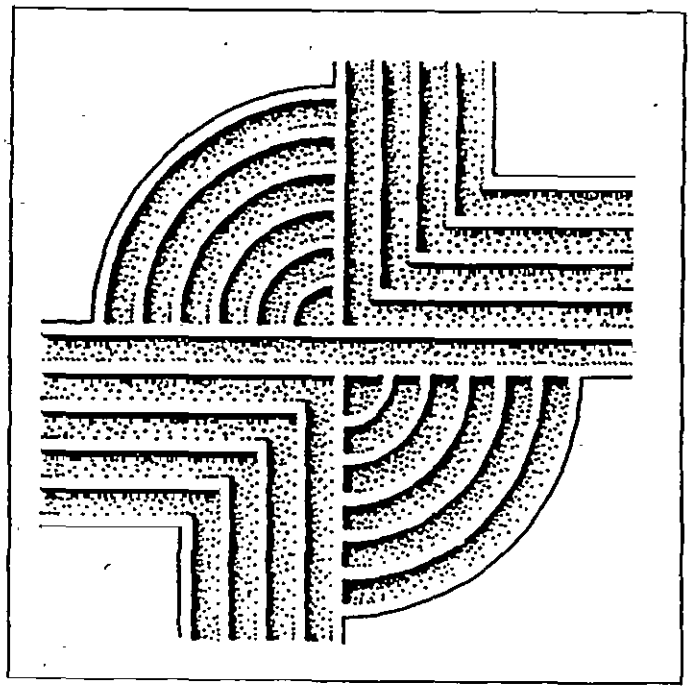
AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED SANTEE COOPER SCOTTSVILLE TO LAKE CITY 69 KV TRANSMISSION LINE, SUMTER, CLARENDON, FLORENCE AND WILLIAMSBURG COUNTIES, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 245

AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED SANTEE COOPER SCOTTSVILLE TO LAKE CITY 69 KV TRANSMISSION LINE SUMTER, CLARENDON, FLORENCE AND WILLIAMSBURG COUNTIES, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive archaeological survey of the 26 mile long proposed Scottsville to Lake City 69 kV transmission line corridor for Santee Cooper. This route runs from the Scottsville substation west of SC Highway 527 southeastwardly through Cow Bay and across I-95 to Pudding Swamp on the Sumter-Clarendon county border. From there it continues southeastward, paralleling U.S. 378 before crossing Douglas Swamp. Continuing to the southeast, the route crosses U.S. 378 at the Florence-Clarendon county line, through drainages of Smiths Bay and Kingstree Swamp just prior to crossing the Florence-Williamsburg county line. It terminates on the east side of Tupelo Bay at U.S. 52. where it will tie into an existing line.

The project crosses a broad range of farmland, almost all of which had recently been harvested and lain fallow over the winter months. As well, a number of low drainages were encountered, most of which contained dense hardwood vegetation with stands of loblolly pine along the low ridges found between the swamps and farm fields. No prominent swamp edge bluffs were encountered, other than on the western edge of Douglas Swamp. The majority of the transmission line lacks any major topographic relief and, in general, descends towards the east.

The archaeological survey consisted of both pedestrian survey of cultivated fields, with close interval shovel testing at identified sites, and 100 foot interval shovel testing through wooded areas. No shovel testing was conducted in areas of standing water.

Examination of the site files housed at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology indicated that there were no sites for the corridor. An inquiry was made to the South Carolina Department of Archives and History for any previous architectural surveys or the presence of any National Register properties, sites, districts, or objects.

As a result of this survey, six new archaeological sites were identified (38SU274, 38CR94, 38CR95, 38CR96, 38FL358, 38FL359). One site, 38CR96, is recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic sites. The remaining five sites are considered not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. No additional management activities are necessary for these sites.

The survey was hindered by extensive rainfall in the area just prior to the survey which resulted in a very high water table. A majority of the survey tract contained standing or surface water. Since shovel testing was severely limited by environmental conditions, there is the possibility that cultural resources may be identified during construction. Crews should be made aware that if pottery, arrowheads, concentrations of bricks, or the presence of bones are found in the project corridor, ground disturbing work should be suspended until the finds can be assessed by either the project archaeologist or the State Historic Preservation Office.

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INTRODUCTION

Background

This investigation of the proposed 26 mile Scottsville to Lake City Santee Cooper transmission line was conducted by Mr. William B. Barr of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Sabine and Waters. The proposed Scottsville to Lake City 69 kV services transmission line corridor extends across four counties — Sumter, Clarendon, Florence, and Williamsburg (Figures 1 and 2). The survey corridor ranges from 70 to 100 feet in width and the corridor will contain single wood or metal poles.

Section 1 of the corridor originates at the Scottsville 69 kV switching station in the Scottsville community at the intersection of SC 527 and S-43-59 and runs southeastwardly for a total of about 38,016 feet, or 7.2 miles. This line generally parallels S-43-59 and Hope Swamp, which lie to the north, crossing Church Branch, as well as Lesane Pressly Lane and Neighbor Hood Road just prior to entering Cow Bay (Figure 3). From Cow Bay, the line continues in a southeastwardly direction crossing Trinity Road (S-43-61), SC 53, Fullard Road (S-43-1188), I-95, and Forge Road (S43-78) prior to a more eastern turn just before Pudding Swamp (Figures 4 and 5).

Section 2 runs from west of Pudding Swamp, the line continues approximately 16,400 feet, or 3.11 miles, crossing Pudding Swamp, Pudding Swamp Road at the Sumter-Clarendon county line, S-43-80, and a drained Carolina Bay now used as a turf farm, before turning in a more southerly direction (Section 3) about 1,100 feet northwest of U.S. 301 (Figures 5 and 6).

Section 3 runs a total of 2,296 feet and upon crossing U.S. 301, the line continues southeast for about 1,196 feet, then turns east, (Section 4) running about 3,936 feet, where it intersects with and crosses Horse Branch Road (S-14-422) (Figure 6).

Section 5 runs from Horse Branch Road, south-southeast for 4,920 feet, turning northeast at Dubose Road (S-14-35) (Figure 6).

Section 6 runs from Dubose Road for 7,610 feet, or 1.44 miles, and crosses Douglas Swamp. The line then turns eastwardly again just prior to its intersection with Park Avenue (the Olanta Highway) (Figures 6 and 7).

Section 7 runs from just east of Douglas Swamp to the Clarendon-Williamsburg county line and covers about 20,861 feet, or 3.95 miles. Starting west of Park Avenue, this section extends across the northern portion of Sheep Island Road (S-21-73). Windright Road, Burnt Branch, and the West Turbeville Highway just prior to turning southeastwardly above the small community of Central Crossroads. This small section (1,378 feet) crosses U.S. 378 at the Florence-Clarendon county line before turning southeastwardly again, crossing S-14-787, and running to the Clarendon-Williamsburg county line where the line turns southeast (Figures 7 and 8).

Section 8 runs southeast for 3,936 feet and crosses S-45-585 and S-45-347. Just south of S-45-347 the line again turns due east (Figure 8).

Section 9 runs due east for 12,333 feet, or 2.34 miles, crossing S-45-755 and S-45-113. East of S-45-113 the line parallels Pine Bay Road (S-45-243) for 2,755 feet before turning southeast (Figures 8 and 9).

Section 10 runs for about 14,235 feet, or 2.70 miles, and crosses South Morris Street (S-21-36) just south of the Williamsburg-Florence county line. From there is continues, crossing Gray Road, before turning in a more southeastwardly direction where it intersects Moore Street (Figures 9 and 10).

Section 11 is a short jog to the southeast

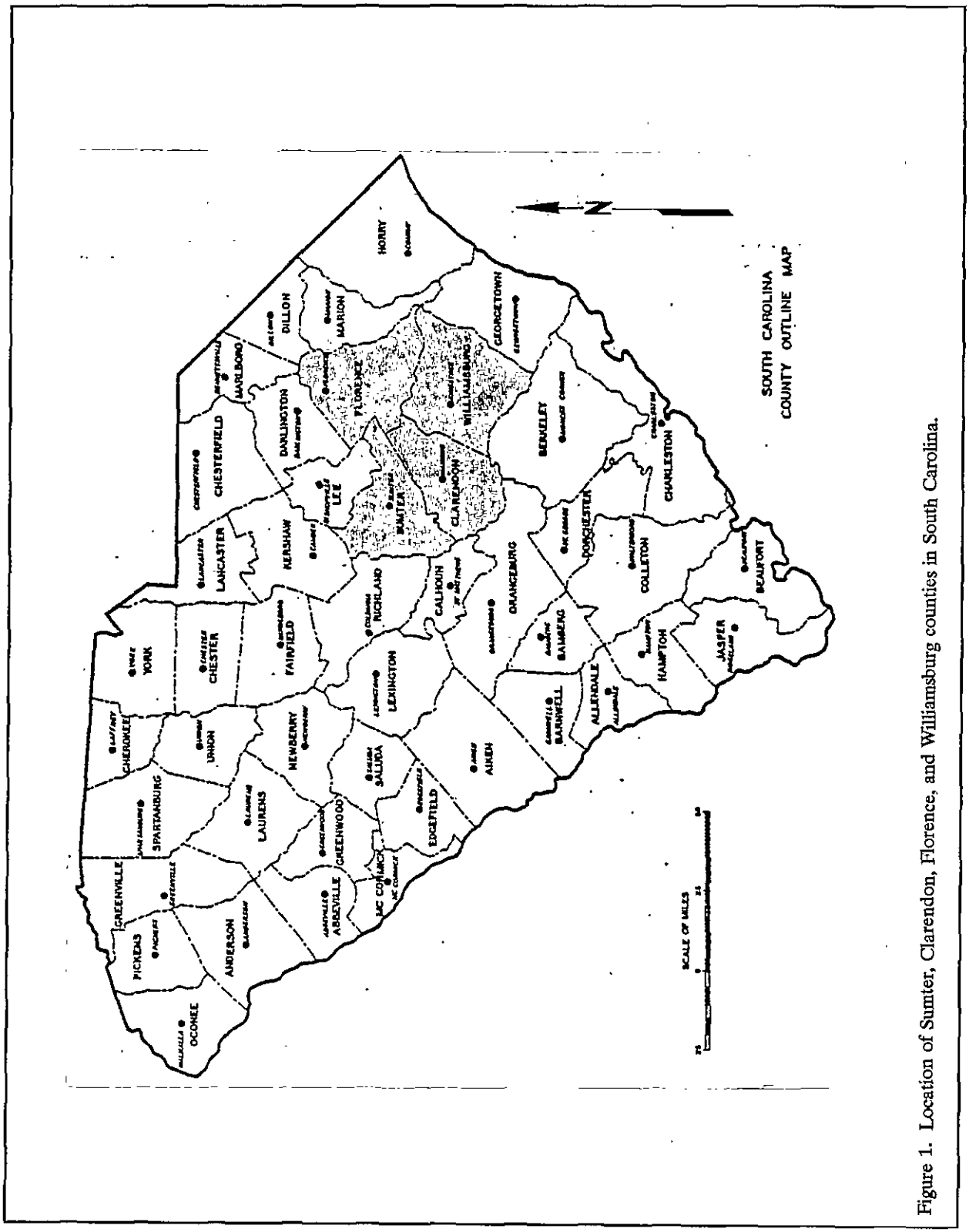

Figure 1. Location of Sumter, Clarendon, Florence, and Williamsburg counties in South Carolina.

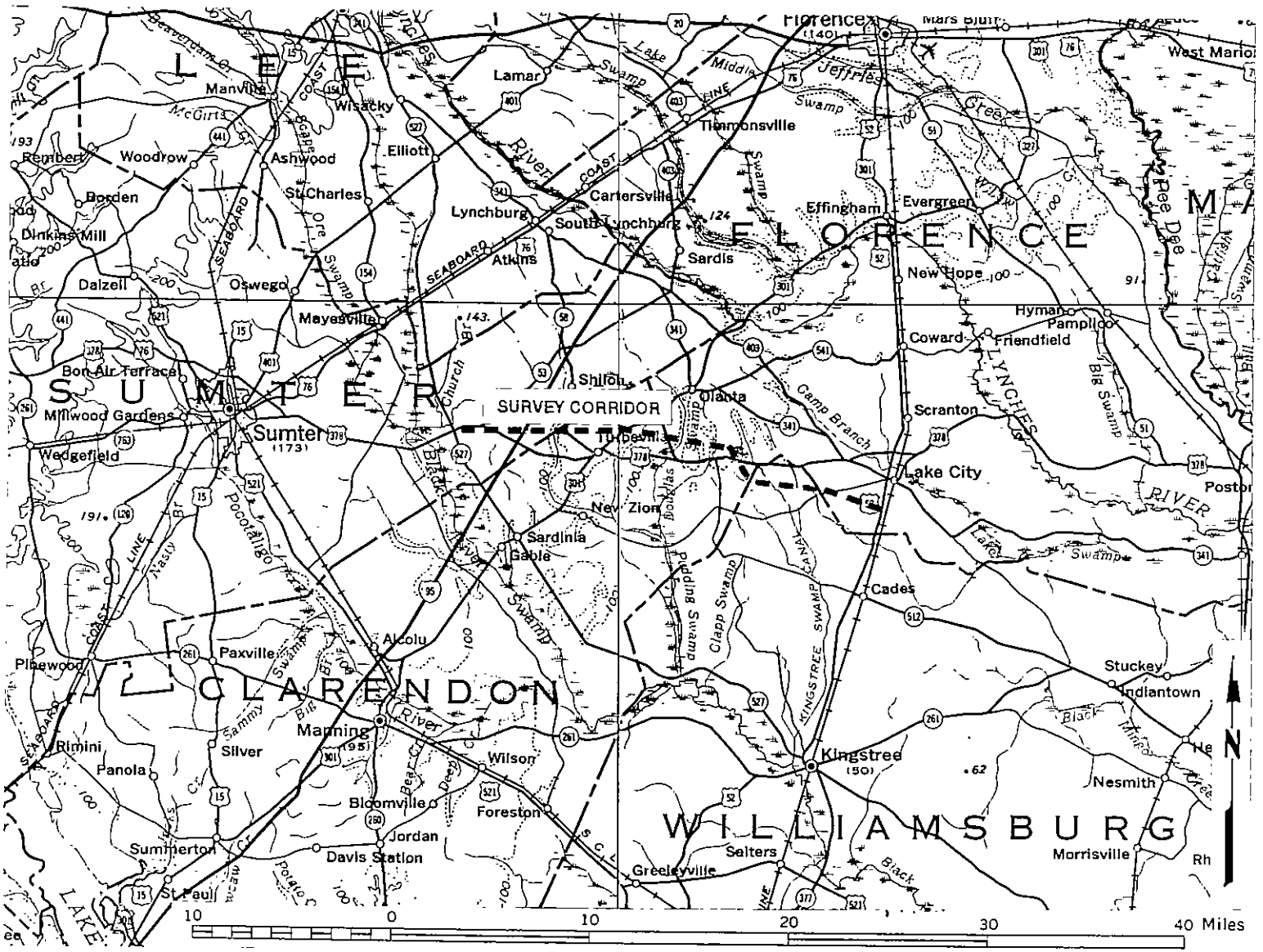

Figure 2. The survey corridor in Sumter, Clarendon, Florence, and Williamsburg Counties (USGS State of South Carolina 1:500,000; 1972).

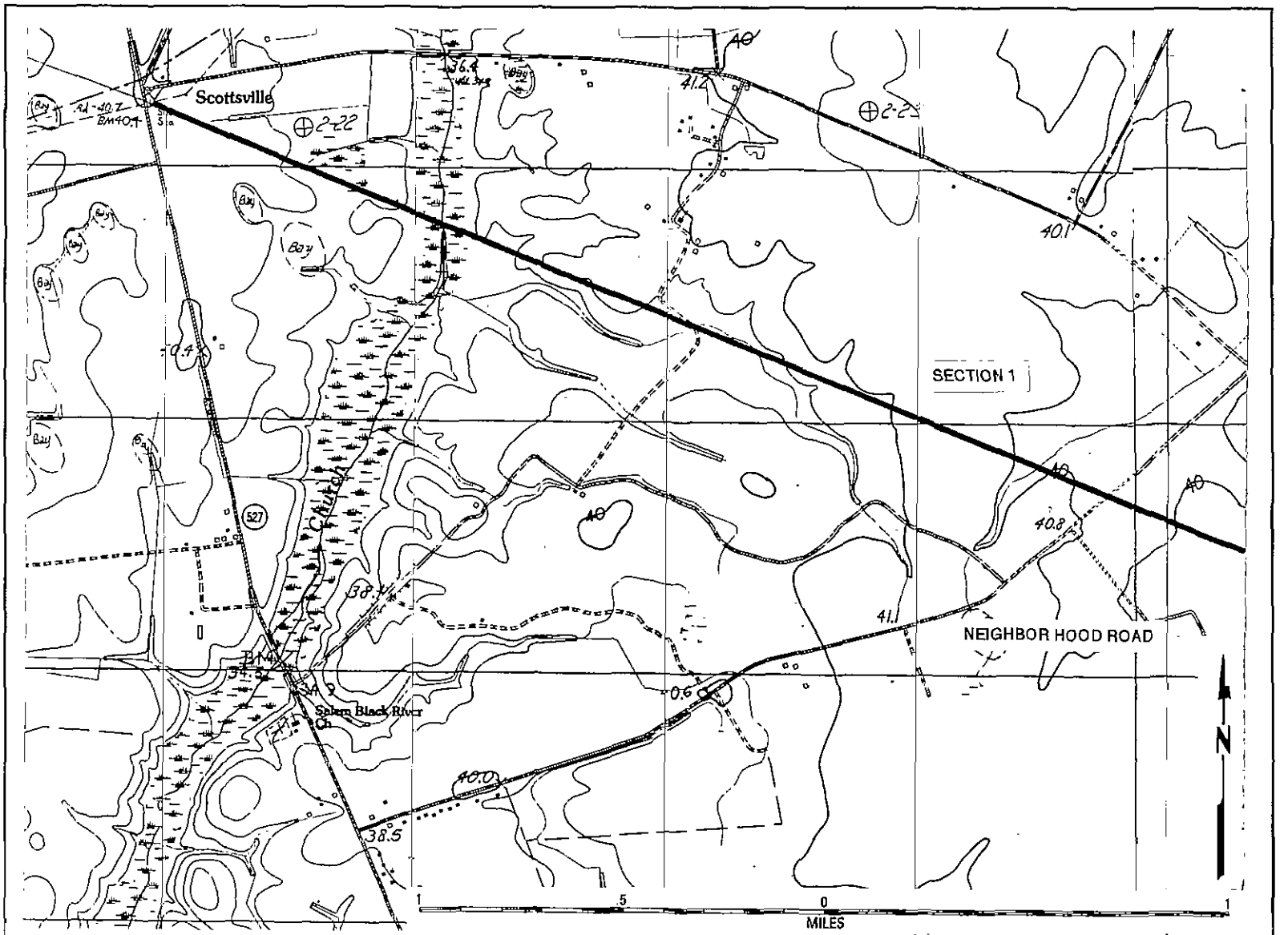

Figure 3. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Section 1 (Maysville and Turbeville USGS 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

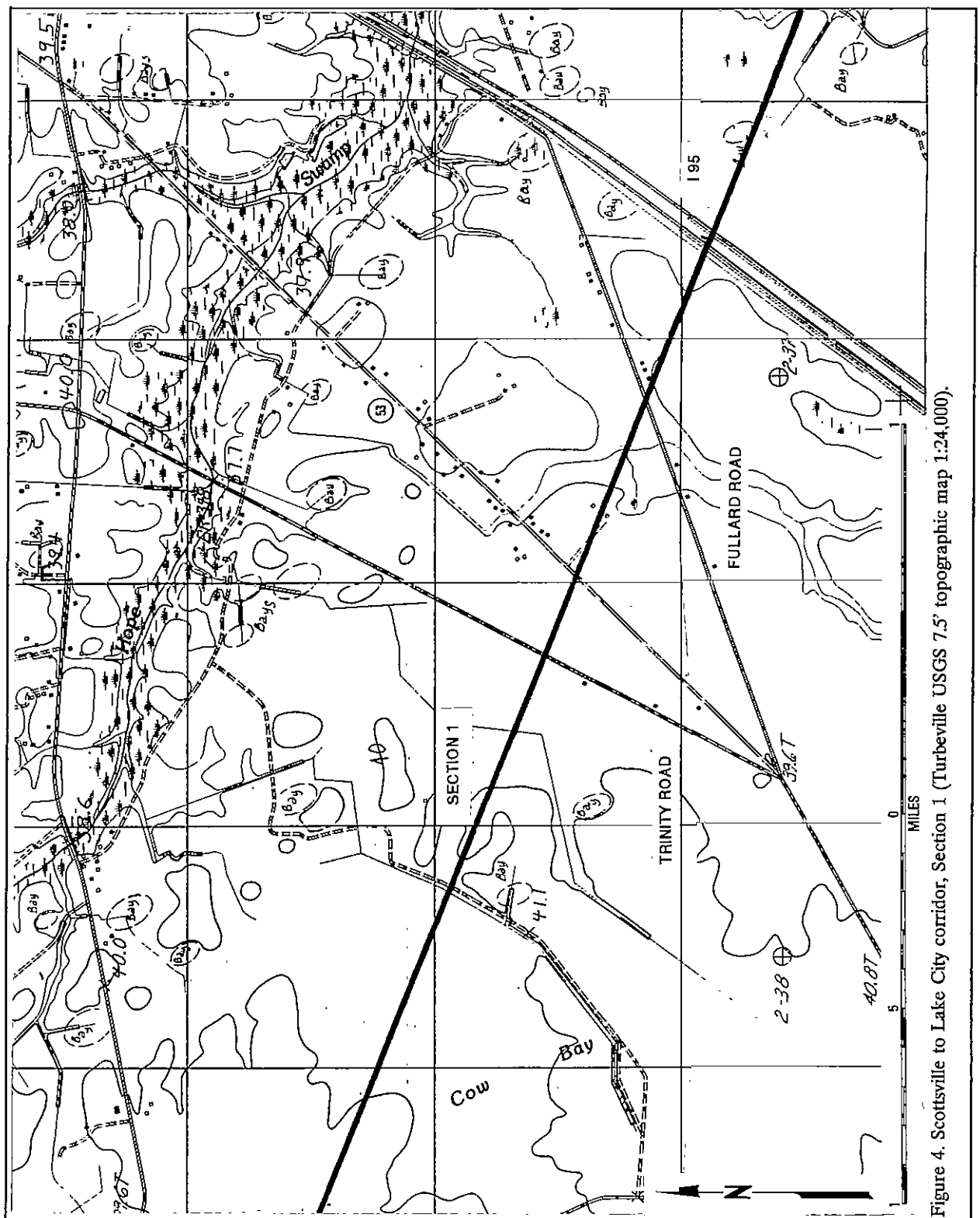

Figure 4. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Section 1 (Turbeville USGS 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

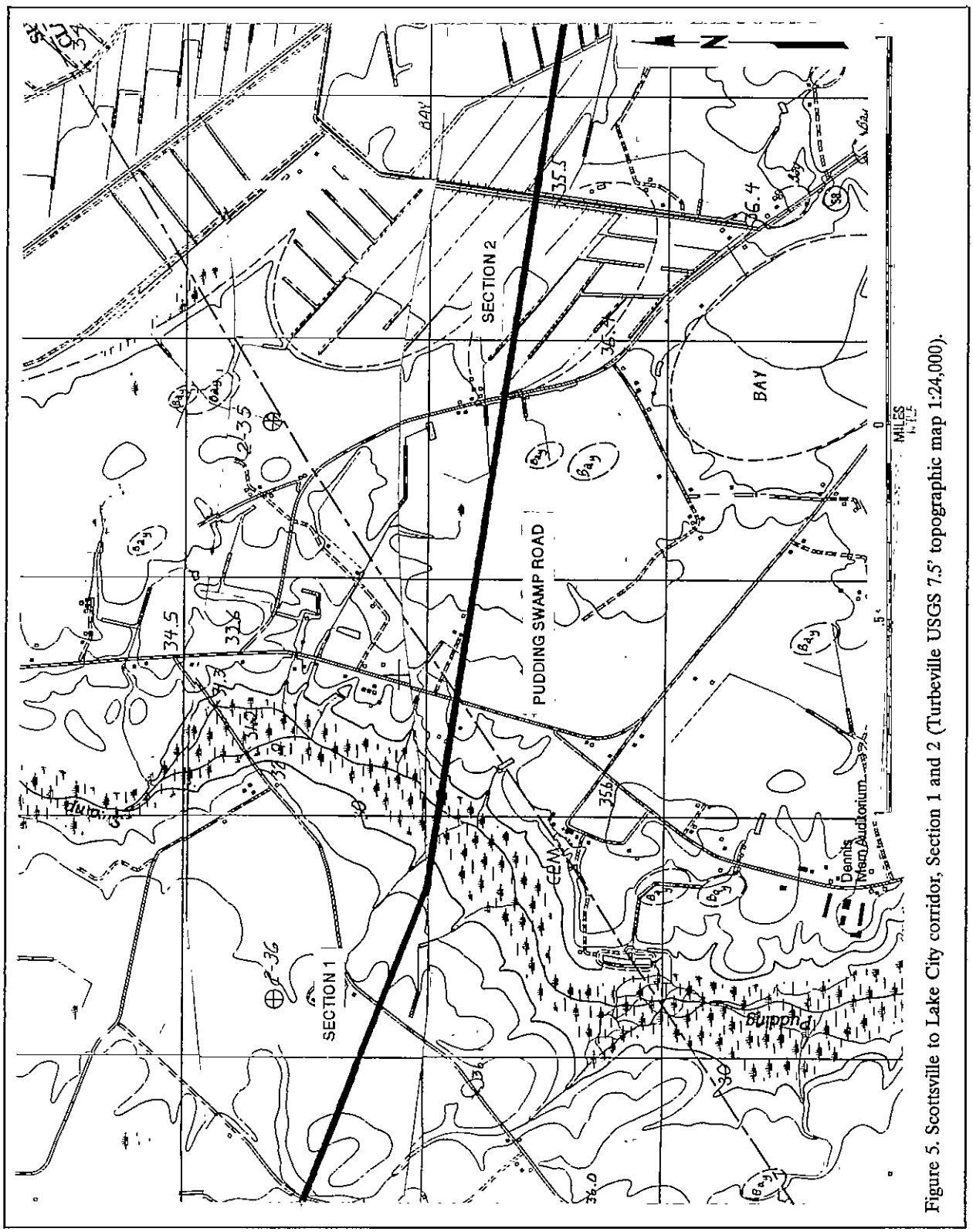

Figure 5. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Section 1 and 2 (Turbeville USGS 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

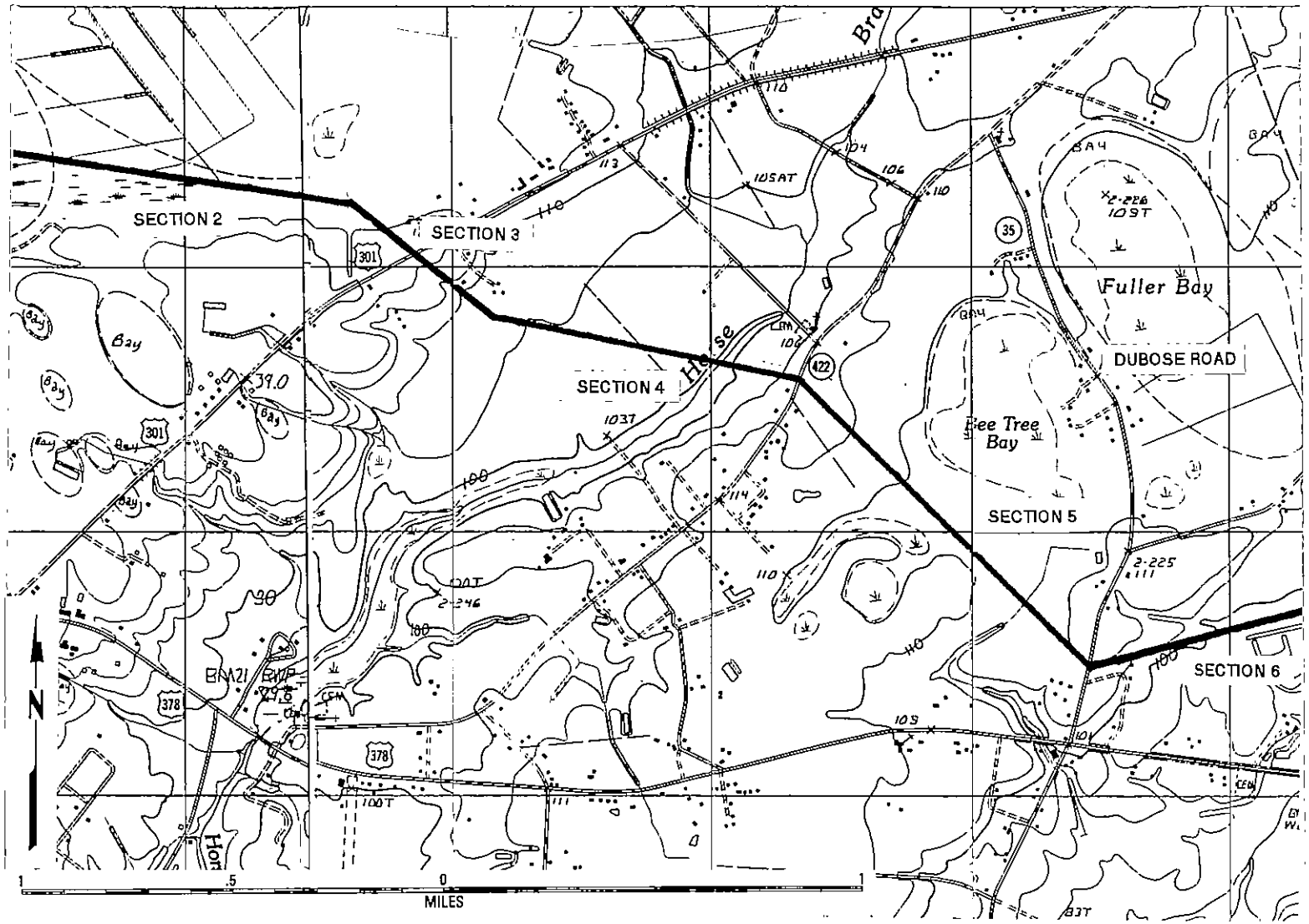

Figure 6. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Sections 2,3,4,5,and 6 (Turbeville and Olanta USGS 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

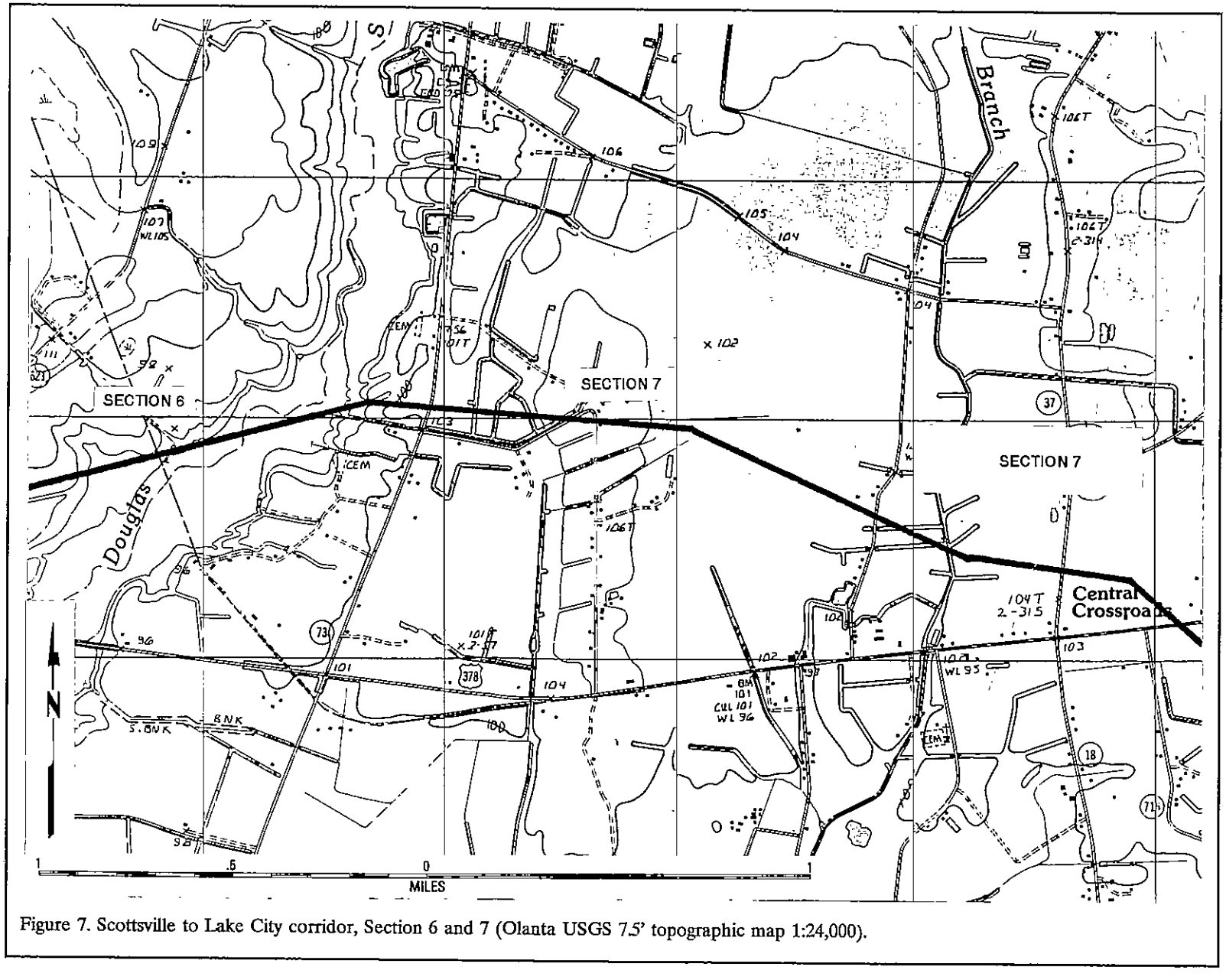

Figure 7. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Section 6 and 7 (Olanta USGS 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

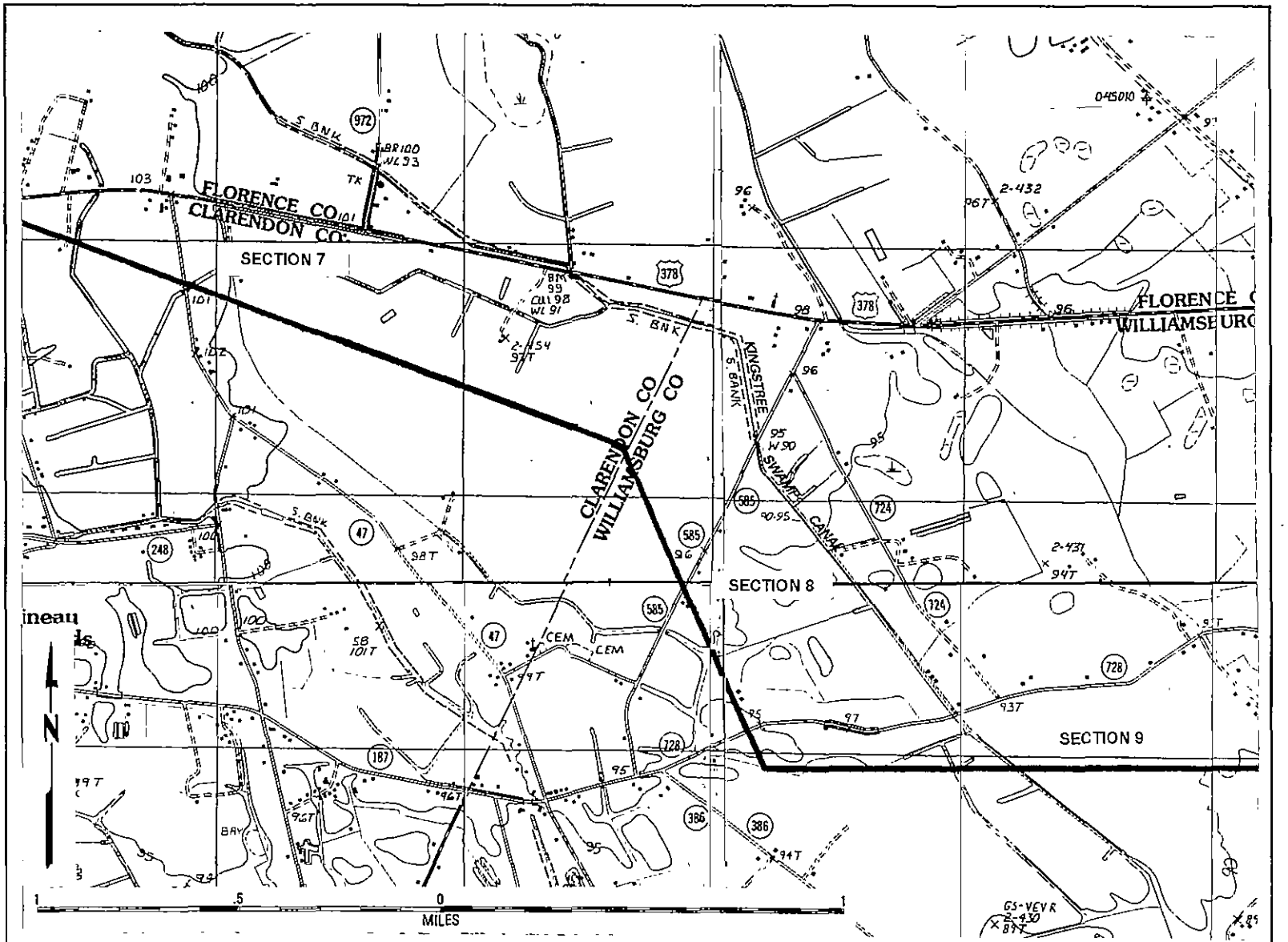

Figure 8. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Sections 7, 8, and 9 (Olanta and Lake City West 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

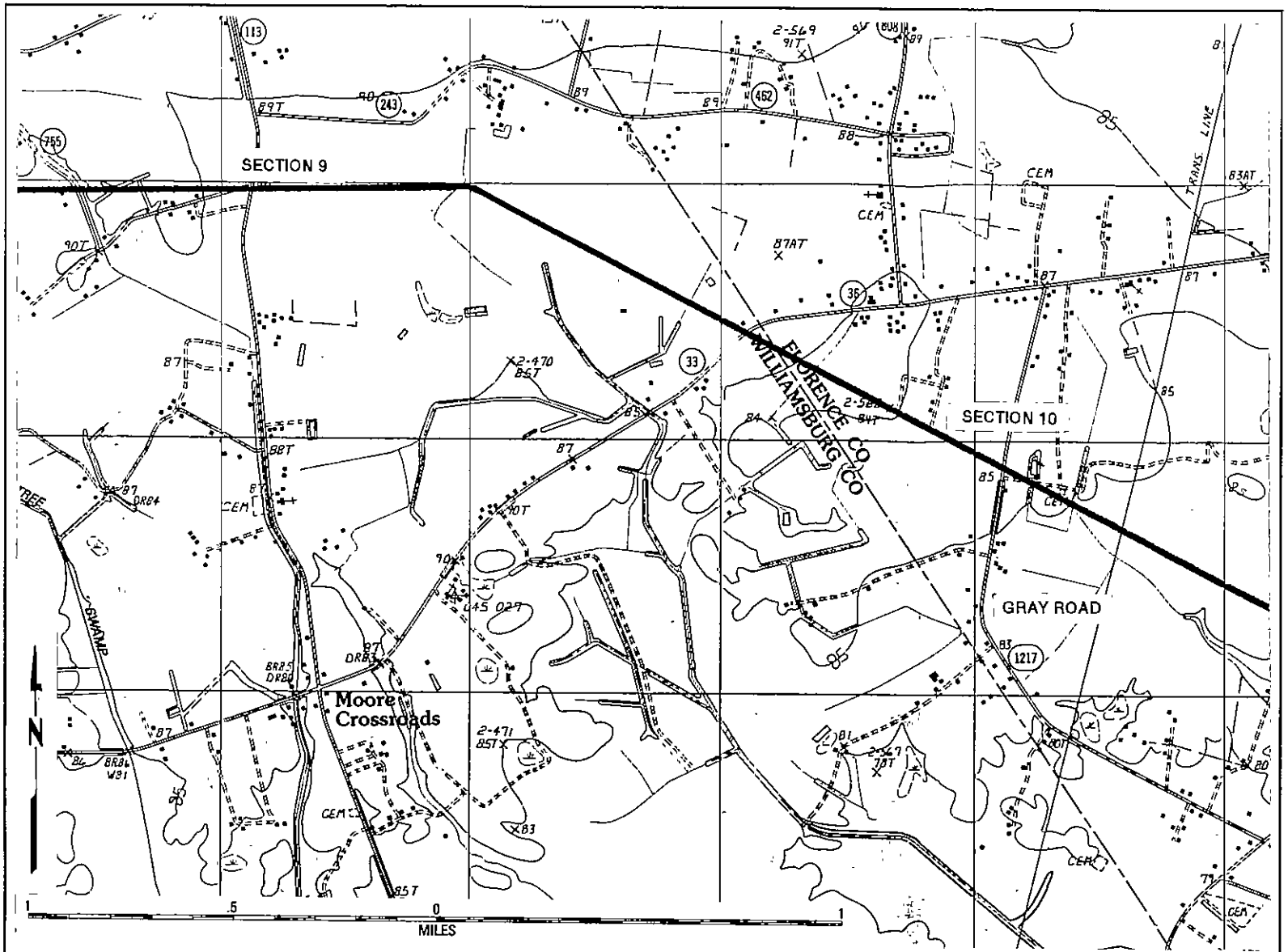

Figure 9. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Section 9 and 10 (Lake City West USGS 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

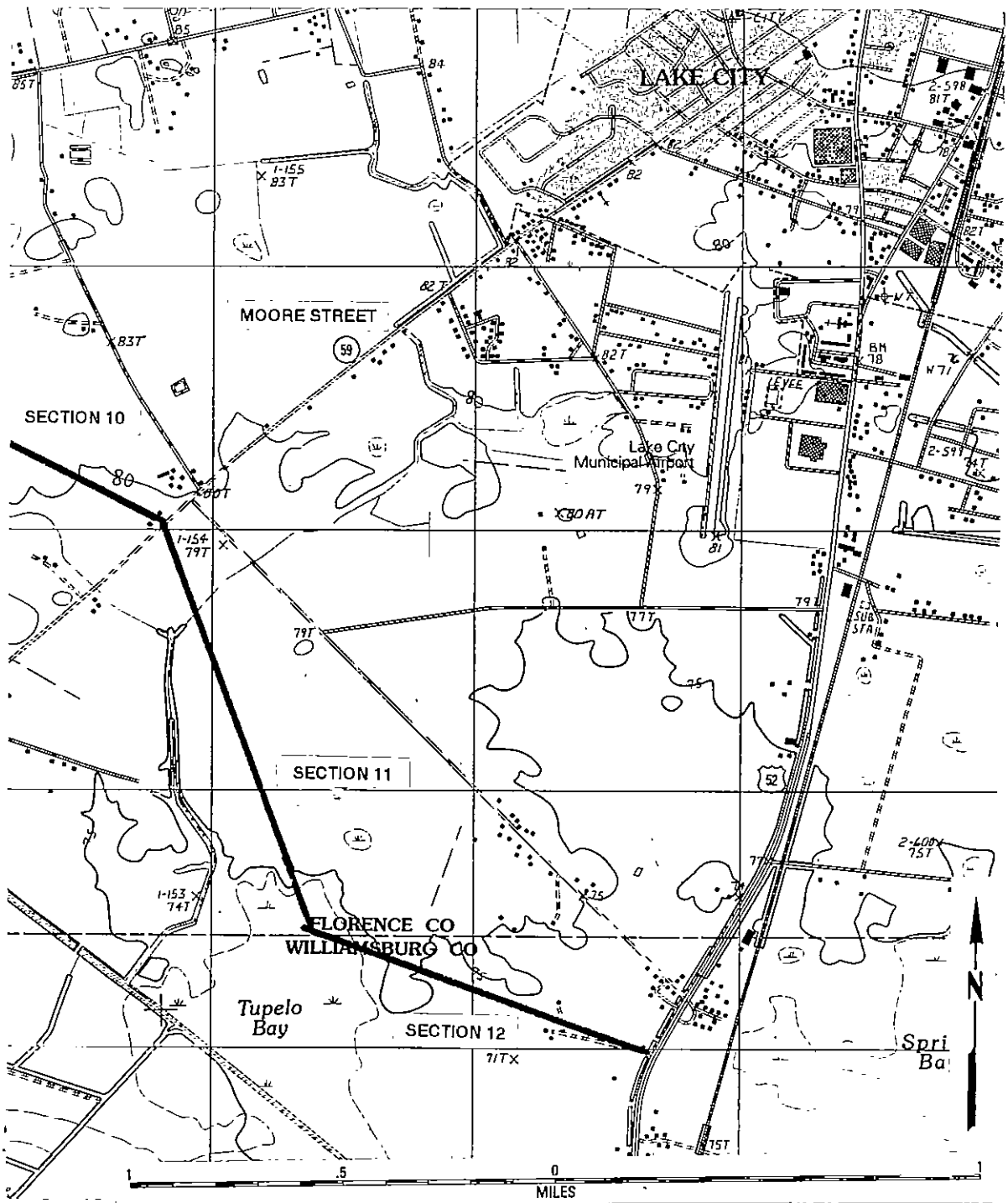

Figure 10. Scottsville to Lake City corridor, Sections 10, 11, and 12 (Lake City West 7.5' topographic map 1:24,000).

for 4,527 feet. At this point, the line intersects with the existing Barrineau-Lake City 69 kV transmission corridor (Figure 10).

Section 11 continues to the southeast where it terminates at U.S. 52 just south of the Nan Ya Plastics Corporation., America South Carolina plant (Figure 10).

The transmission line crosses a number of different agricultural fields, almost all of which had been recently harvested and offered excellent surface visibility (Figure 11). Some of these fields had been recently planted in rye, but even those exhibited good surface visibility. A few of the fields encountered were either fallow or had stubble, whereas others contained remnants of recent harvesting. These fields contained crops such as corn, cabbage, turnip greens, sweet potatos, soybeans, cotton, and mustard greens. In these surface visibility was often reduced but rarely below 50%. Also crossed are a number of wooded tracts which were relatively dense outside of the cut line. These areas exhibited generally moderately well to very poor soil drainage. The survey line had been well cut in November of 1997 and very little regrowth had taken place in the intervening five month period (Figure 12). Where the woods were associated with bottomland swamps, the soils were very wet and either standing or subsurface water was frequently encountered.

The proposed work on this corridor will include clearing and (in non-wetland areas) grubbing of the 70 to 100 foot wide corridor, followed by placement of the poles and construction of the transmission lines. This work has the potential to damage or even destroy archaeological sites, especially if the work is done under wet conditions when rutting can occur. Even sites in plowed areas can be damaged by the operation of equipment used in the construction process.

We were requested by Sabine and Waters to submit a cost proposal for an intensive survey of the corridor on February 3. This proposal, submitted on February 4, was approved on February 9, 1998. Shortly after completion of the survey (March 3), however, we learned that one portion of the corridor had to be rerouted along property lines. This involved the central portion of Section 6 where the line crosses U.S. 378 and included a total 1,378 feet. This section was not cut or well marked and the exact corridor was difficult to follow. In this area we widened our study corridor in an effort to ensure that the final centerline location was included.

These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology by Mr. William B. Barr. No previously recorded sites were identified along the project corridor. In addition, Dr. Tracy Power at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History was asked on February 12, 1998 to check the master topographic maps at his office to locate any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. In addition, his office was asked about the results of any structures surveys which might have been completed in the study area. On February 17 he reported that there were no National Register properties in the corridor.

Archival and historical research was conducted at the Thomas Cooper Map Repository and the South Caroliniana Library. In addition, the resources present in the Chicora Foundation files was also used.

The survey was conducted on February 24 through March 3, 1998 by Mr. William B. Barr, Mr. John Hamer, and Ms. Martha Houston. A total of 145 person hours were required for this investigation.

The analysis and cataloging of the collections was conducted by Ms. Debi Hacker at Chicora's Columbia laboratories during the week of March 9. During this work all materials were evaluated for conservation needs. No materials were found which warranted conservation treatments. Additional information concerning curation is available at the end of this section.

Goals and Methods

The primary goals of this study were, first, to identify the archaeological resources of the

Figure 11. Recently cultivated fields in the survey corridor.

Figure 12. Cut line through wooded areas.

survey corridor and, second, to assess the ability of those resources to contribute significant archaeological, historical, or anthropological data. The second aspect essentially involves the site's eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places, although Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead compliance agency in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

To identify sites within the corridor, a strategy of intensive shovel testing of wooded areas was coupled with pedestrian survey of plowed fields. For the purpose of this study a site is identified as three or more artifacts within a 25-foot area. Most of the wooded areas were found along swamp margins, within swamps, or in areas not deemed agriculturally productive, typically in areas of lower, less well drained soils. Shovel testing was conducted along the center line of the corridor, typically at 100 foot intervals. In many areas, where the soils were found to be somewhat poorly drained, shovel testing was based on accessibility to areas where standing water was not present.

Agricultural fields were subjected to a pedestrian survey with two or three individuals slowly walking in single file about 30 feet apart. The boundaries of sites in open fields were marked and then additional, closer interval passes were made through the area to collect a representative sample of exposed materials. All of the sites recovered were either shovel tested or subjected to intensive, or controlled, surface collections.

Areas of dense swamp, characterized by wet soils or standing water were not shovel tested. These areas were, however, walked when clearly delineated cut lines marked the survey corridor.

All shovel tests were about 1-foot square and were excavated to subsoil, typically 1.0 to 1.5 feet in depth. All fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh with the tests backfilled immediately afterwards. All materials recovered from shovel testing, except brick and mortar which were noted and discarded in the field, were bagged. Shovel tests were sequentially numbered and recorded on a shovel test log.

Figures 3 through 10 show the corridor location and the type of survey conducted. Field notes reveal that about 33% of the corridor was subjected to pedestrian survey, 30% was shovel tested at 100-foot intervals, and 37% of the corridor was found to be wet or swamp and received only minimal investigation.

Generally, sites identified either through shovel testing or through surface collections were subjected to close interval (30 foot) shovel testing. Normally identified sites received cruciform shovel testing. In all areas this was carried out to two successive negative shovel tests, while in agricultural fields the shovel testing was carried to the limits of the surface scatter. Where shovel testing of sites did not occur, a uniform 100 foot by 100 foot grid was marked out and collections were systematically recovered within these grid squares.

Notes were retained on representative shovel tests and photographs were taken of individual sites if warranted in the opinion of the field director. At each site the information necessary for the completion of a South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site form was collected.

Once identified, sites were evaluated for their potential eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This assessment process follows that outlined by Townsend et al. (1993) in *National Register Bulletin* 36. This evaluative processes involves five steps, forming a clearly defined, explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as artifacts, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic

context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site *might* be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets are sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of "important" research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

Taking each of these steps individually, the first is simply to determine what is present at the site — for example, are features present, what types of artifacts are present, from what period does the site date? This represents the collection of basic, and essential, information concerning the site and the types of research contributions it can offer. Obviously there is no reason to propose research on eighteenth century plantation development if only early twentieth century ceramics are present. Nor is it perhaps appropriate to explore questions focused on subsistence if no faunal materials are present in the collection. This first step is typically addressed through the survey investigations, often with supporting documentation provided by historic research.

Next, it is important to understand the historic context of the site — what is the history of the project area and of the specific locality? Research questions must be posed with an understanding of this context and the context helps to direct the focus of research. The development of a historic context can be a lengthy process. The historic synopsis in this study provides a preliminary context for a wide range of different site types, although we recognize that it many ways it is superficial and lacking in detail.

Associated with the development of the context is the formation of research questions ***applicable to the site, its context, and its data sets.*** Often this research will grow out of previous projects in the area. Certainly topics of exceptional interest continue to be the examination of Middle Woodland ceramics and settlement systems, the spread of eighteenth and nineteenth century plantations into the Upper Coastal Plain, and the development and lifeways of tenancy in the region. Each of these topics is more fully discussed in the following historic overview.

Next it is essential to compare the data sets with the research questions — the information necessary to address the research questions must be present at the site, else posing the question is meaningless in the evaluative process. Focusing on small projects, it may be more appropriate to concentrate on only one or perhaps two research questions and devote the energy necessary to fully explore them, then to propose a range of questions which can be only superficially explored with the data sets or resources available.

Finally, Townsend et al. recognize that not all research questions are of equal importance and that only those of fairly high value should be considered in the evaluation of National Register eligibility. Of all the steps this may be the most difficult to address. Some research questions proposed may seem pedestrian. Our society has viewed history as great events happening to great individuals. Many view architectural significance with the same jaundiced eye — significance being equated with white columns and famous architects. And certainly if the available archaeological studies of low country plantations are examined, there is a similar bias toward big plantations with relatively grand lifeways. Curiously, we know much less about the common planter, the yeoman farmer, or the tenant — and their probably more vernacular architecture — than we do about the famous or the high style. Some historians have referred to the common man as the "invisible person." Others have offered some understanding using the concept of the "marginal man." It is consequently important to understand that significance of archaeological research questions is not judged from the

perspective of the wealth, or power, or prestige of the historic persons involved. It is judged from the perspective of what the research can tell us about the past that traditional historical research cannot.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites actually being nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluation process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation where only, typically, one discrete site is being considered. In the case of survey evaluations some modifications of the approach seem reasonable, if not actually essential. Regardless, the approach advocated by Townsend et al. encourages researchers to carefully consider, and justify, their recommendations regarding National Register eligibility.

Curation

Archaeological site forms have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. The field notes and artifacts resulting from these investigations will be curated with that institution using their proveniencing system which consists of site number-site provenience number- artifact number.

All original records and duplicate copies were provided to the institution on pH neutral, alkaline buffered permanent paper. The artifacts are housed in ziplock bags with pH neutral, alkaline buffered tags. Photographic materials, which consist only of color prints, are not archivally stable and have therefore been retained in Chicora's project files.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

This project is situated in four counties — Sumter, Florence, Clarendon, and Williamsburg. These contiguous counties are found in the east central part of South Carolina and span the physiographic area known as the Inner and Middle Coastal Plain. About 40 miles east of Columbia, this area has historically been lumped under a wide range of administrative jurisdictions, but the occupants have always been united by the similarity of topography, climate, and vegetation (see Figure 2).

Physiography

The topography of the project area consists of gently sloping hills found in Sumter County in the east to predominantly nearly level flood plains found in Williamsburg County in the west. Elevations range from a high of 400 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) in Sumter County to a low of seal level in Williamsburg County. River drainages generally contain wide flood plains with elevations ranging from 20 feet AMSL to about 40 feet AMSL. These are often separated by low ridges rising as high as 190 feet AMSL to lows of about 40 feet AMSL. Overall, the entire region generally slopes down hill towards the Atlantic Ocean (Pitts 1974, Gerald 1974, Ward 1989).

Often described as flatwoods, the project corridor crosses an area often characterized by broad flat areas, which consist of a few low ridges and bay depressions. The most common depressions in the Coastal Plain are Carolina bays, usually marshy and oval in shape (Richards 1959:45-46). Water depth varies from shallow lakes to areas with a preponderance of peat and herbaceous species (Barry 1980:131-13). Edmond Ruffin, a mid-nineteenth century observer, commented that these features provided good pasturage for cattle (Mathew 1992:210).

A number of rivers, creeks, and swamps join together to form a dendritic network that impeded much of the early settlement in this region. Major rivers within the four county area include the Wateree River, the Great Pee Dee River, Lynches River, the Black River, the Pocotaligo River, and the Santee River. The Black River is common to three of the counties; Sumter, Clarendon, and Williamsburg. Swamps and inland bays are found associated with most of these rivers and, again, are common to a number of the counties. These include Cow Swamp, found in Sumter County (Figure 13), Pudding Swamp and Douglas Swamp, found in both Sumter and Clarendon county, as well as Kingstree Swamp and Tupelo Bay found in Williamsburg County (Figure 14). Soils in such areas are generally poorly drained loamy sands and the typical vegetation is usually mesic or swampy, often characterized by bay trees.

Geology and Soils

The geology is characteristic of the Coastal Plain. The parent materials of the soils are marine or fluvial deposits which consist of varying amounts of sands, silts, and clays. There are four primary geologic formations deposited at different periods during alternating transgression and recession of the ocean: the Duplin Marl Formation underlies parts of the southern and western portions of the county; the Black Creek Formation is found in the northern portion of the county. The Black Creek Formation directly underlies the Pee Dee Formation and is Upper Cretaceous in age. It is described as fossilliferous, pyritic, lignitic white to gray, fine to medium-grained phosphatic sands, and blue-gray to black pyritic, plastic, or brittle clays (Park 1980).

The project corridor crosses four soil associations: the Lynchburg-Goldsboro-Coxville Association in Sumter, Florence, and Williamsburg counties, the Dothan-Lynchburg-Rains Association, the Ponzer-Rutlege Association and the

Figure 13. Cow Bay in Sumter County, view to the east.

Figure 14. Tupelo Bay in Williamsburg County, view to the west.

Lynchburg-Clarendon-Rains Association in Clarendon County.

The proposed transmission line crosses 16 soil series. A useful characterization of the soils is by capability classification, which is the grouping of soils to show their:

> suitability . . . for most kinds of field crops. The soils are grouped according to their limitations . . . the risk of damage . . . and the way they respond to treatment (Pitts 1974:45).

These capability groups for crops are similar to those suitability groups established for woodland species. Soils from five of the seven classifications are found in the corridor, although most have either moderate or severe limitations. The primary limitations are wetness, typical of the bottomland and bay Coxville, Pantego, Paxville, and Ponzer soils.

The soils in the project area closely parallel the physiographic regions crossed by the corridor: the inner coastal plain with generally well drained, sandy soils; and the low swampy areas of the Flatwoods and drainages where the water table may be within a few feet of the ground level. Few historic or prehistoric sites are expected on the very wet soils. Historic occupation, especially during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, is expected on upland, well drained soils suitable for agriculture. Earlier historic sites are expected to be found on the margins of swamp bottoms. Prehistoric sites are expected to be uncommon in the upland areas and are more likely to occur adjacent to the hardwood bottom swamps.

The poorly drained, somewhat poorly drained, and very poorly drained soils have seasonal high water tables ranging from 0 to 1.0 feet below the surface. For the purpose of this study they are lumped together and account for about 90% of the corridor. These soils are most commonly associated with wooded tracts and ponding frequently occurs. Although these soils may be incorporated into cultivated fields, if drainage ditches are present, ponding may still be evident.

Table 1.
Soils and Capability Classifications for the Survey Corridor

Capability Class I	
Few Limitations	
Norfolk Loamy Sand	WD
Capability Class II	
Moderate Limitations	
Brogdon Loamy Sand	WD
Duplin Fine Sandy Loam	MWD
Fuquay Fine Sand	WD
Forreston Fine Sand	MWD
Goldsboro Loamy Sand	MWD
Lynchburg Loamy Sand	SPD
Capability Class III	
Severe Limitations	
Coxville Fine Sandy Loam	PD
Pantego Loam	PD
Paxville Fine Sandy Loam	VPD
Rains Sandy Loam	PD
Scranton Fine Sand	SPD
Troup Sand	WD
Capability Class V	
Other Limitations	
Osier Loamy Fine Sand	PD
Rutlege Loamy Fine Sand	VPD
Capability Class VII	
Very Severe Limitations	
Ponzer Mucky Loam	VPD

WD = well drained, MWD = moderately well drained, VPD = very poorly drained, SPD = somewhat poorly drained, PD = poorly drained

The well drained to moderately well drained soils have seasonal highwater tables ranging from 1.5 to 6 feet below the surface and

together account for about 10% of the soils in the study tract. Most of these better drained soils are found either where fields have been opened for cultivation or on wooded ridge tops between drainages.

Mills comments that the swampland soils are composed of the "richest soil". He notes for nearby Marion District that "[w]hile the swamp lands reclaimed and secured from freshets, will bring 50 dollars an acre; and the oak and hickory lands 15 dollars an acre; the pine lands will scarcely sell for 1 dollar per acre" (Mills 1972:623 [1826]). The flatlands, "are, by comparison, sand barrens; yet occasionally [sic] presenting some good timber land" (Mills 1972:513 [1826]). And while the uplands were healthy, with summers free of disease, he observed that, "on the rivers, creeks, and flat lands, this district is subject to bilious fevers, and cannot be called healthy" (Mills 1972:515 [1826]). The products cultivated during that time were "cotton, corn, wheat, pease, and potatoes" (Mills 1972:623 [1826]).

Climate

The general climate of the four county area is characterized by mild humid conditions. This climate is influenced by the warm Gulf Stream, as well as by the Appalachian mountains which block the coldest air masses. Other factors include latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracts of migratory cyclones. Day to day weather is controlled primarily by the movement of pressure systems across the nation. However, during the summer months there are few complete exchanges of air masses because tropical maritime air persists for extended periods (Pitts 1974:108).

The average annual precipitation in the four county area ranges from 44.5 to 49 and is unevenly distributed throughout the year, with 28.9 to 31.6 inches occurring from April through October which is the primary growing season (Pitts 1974:108, Gerald 1974:64, Ward 1989:112). Recent heavy rains have caused the rivers and creeks near the project area to run higher than normal for this time of year. Florence County alone received about 8.35 inches of rain in February (Personal communication Joe Pinner, 1998).

The climate, according to Mills (1972:625 [1826]), "taking the whole year round, is pleasant". The annual average temperature in Florence is 63.2°F, and the average monthly temperature ranges from 44.8°F in January to 80.3°F in July. Frozen precipitation occurs only one to three times a year during the winter season. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable air produces frequent scattered showers and thunderstorms in the summer. Severe weather usually means violent thunderstorms, tornadoes, and hurricanes. The tropical storm season is in late summer and early fall, although storms may occur as early as May or as late as October (NOAA 1977). Heavy rains and high winds occur with tropical storms about once every six years. Storms of hurricane intensity are much more infrequent. Notable droughts have occurred twice in modern times; in 1925 and 1954. Typically a serious drought may occur once every fifty years. Less severe dry periods have occurred more often, normally in late spring or in autumn (Pitts 1974:109).

Floristics

There are two major categories of plant communities, based primarily on topographic location, which exist in the project area. The first category consists of upland vegetation. Supported here are a mixture of coniferous and deciduous forests dominated by pines and broadleaf taxa such as upland oaks, sweetgum, hickories, and various understory species. Incorporated may be small upland depressions and drainages, which contain more hydric species.

Portions of the upland area were found to contain pine forest, typically found on soils of low fertility, high acidity, and excessive drainage. Most often these area have been subjected to extensive disturbance, including repeated logging operations, and the pine represent an early stage of revegetation. A few areas of hardwood forest exist in the project area, where oaks, maple, sweetgum, black gum, and mockernut hickory are prevalent. More common, however are mixed forests, containing both pines and hardwoods.

Lowland forests, which account for the second category, are located on the floodplain of Sparrow Swamp. This floodplain is about 20 feet lower in elevation and is defined by a gradual slope. These floodplain soils are forested with bald cypress, gum, sycamore, water hickory, lowland oaks, soft maples, willows, and other herbaceous species.

In the early nineteenth century Mills observed that:

> the long leafed pine is most abundant of the forest trees; next the cypress, various kinds of oak, the hickory, tupilo &c. Of fruit trees the peach, apple, pear, plum,. &c. are common (Mills 1972:624 [1826]).

Mills also observed that the major use of these forest resources was construction, also noting that "good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick" (Mills 1972:625 [1826]). Only lime, largely made of burnt shells, needed to be imported into the area (primarily from neighboring Georgetown). Mills encouraged the residents to make better use of their local "shell limestone" for lime, a suggestion which appears to have made little impact in the local economy (Mills 1972:628 [1826]).

Today, about a third of the four county area has been cleared for cultivation. On the 26 mile long survey corridor, approximately 8.75 miles, or 33%, of the land is in seasonally fallow fields or active cultivation. Crops observed included corn, cabbage, turnip greens, sweet potatoes, soybeans, cotton, mustard greens, and rye grass. About 13.0 miles, or 49%, consisted primarily of coniferous and deciduous trees including pines, oaks, sweetgums, and hickories. In addition, the wooded areas consisted of a very thick understory of plants including various shrubs, vines, and herbaceous species. About 0.38 miles, or 2%, consisted of cattle pasture with the remaining 4.0 miles, or 16%, composed of swamp.

Prehistoric Environment

A reconstruction of paleoenvironmental features has gradually emerged within the past several decades and is based on the work of Whitehead (1965, 1967, 1972, 1973) and Watts (1970, 1975, 1980). Unfortunately, our understanding of environmental change is general and is based almost entirely on pollen analysis of lake sediments and buried organic layers situated in Piedmont areas outside South Carolina. The pollen studies give evidence of vegetational changes which in turn provide suggestions concerning climatic change. These studies can be important to the archaeologist because they allow inferences to be drawn on the nature of the cultural-environmental interactions, such as the adaptive shifts human populations made to counter ecological shifts. It is recognized that these inferences must be based on the paleoenvironment, not the extant environment.

Based largely on work from southeastern Virginia and North Carolina, Whitehead (1965) has employed a tripartite division of the preceding 25,000 years: Full Glacial (25,000 - 15,000 B.P.), Late Glacial (15,000 - 10,000 B.P.), and Post-Glacial or Holocene (10,000 B.P. - present).

During the Full Glacial the Coastal Plain was boreal, although he vegetation was sparse, which suggests a relatively dry climate. Voorhies (1974), based on a paleontological assemblage from east-central Georgia, suggests a cool, moist climate instead. Watts' (1980) work from White Pond at the edge of the Inner Coastal Plain, found jack pine, red spruce, and herbs, which appear to reflect a boreal forest climate. During the Late Glacial period there was a gradual change to a hemlock-northern hardwoods forest type and eventually to a modern condition. From White Pond, Watts (1980) identified a forest dominated by oak, hickory, beech, and ironwood and interprets this assemblage as a mesic deciduous forest typical of a cool and moist environment.

The mesic deciduous forest began to change early in the Holocene and was replaced by a more xeric forest comprised of modern flora. Again from White Pond, Watts (1980) notes the

rapid loss of hickory, beech, and ironwood after 9,500 B.P. with the equally rapid rise of southern pine species. The oak species remain, and sweet gum and tupelo are found. An essentially modern flora is postulated by Whitehead (1965) and Watts (1971) by 5,000 B.P. with the spread of oak-hickory forests.

Of considerable interest to the reconstruction of the environment of the Late Woodland and early Historic periods are the descriptions of the early explorers and surveyors. One of the earliest descriptions is by John Lawson during his 1701 journey through the interior of South Carolina. Lawson left Charleston on December 18, 1700 and fifty-nine days later, arrived at the English settlements on the Pamlico River. During this trip Lawson passed to the west of Sumter County and observed the High Hills of Santee from the west bank of the Santee River swamp. Lawson stated he:

> came to the most amazing Prospect I had seen since I had been in *Carolina*; we travell'd by a Swamp-side, which Swamp I believe to be no less than twenty miles over, the other Side being as far as I could well discern, there appearing great Ridges of Mountains . . . (Lefler 1967:32).

In addition, Lawson describes the swamp areas as "extraordinarily rich, and the Runs of Water well stor'd with Fowl" and the land as well "extraordinarily rich, black Mould" (Lefler 1967:32). That night Lawson and his fellow travelers were awoken by the "hideous Noise" or "Musick" which resulted from the "endless Numbers of Panthers, Tygers, Wolves, and other Beasts of Prey, which take this Swamp for their Abode in the day, coming in whole Droves to hunt the Deer in the Night" (Lefler 1967:33). Lawson noted that the next morning his Indian guide, Santee Jack, "kill'd 15 Turkeys this Day; there coming out of the Swamp, (about sun-rising) Flocks of these Fowl, containing several hundreds in a Gang, who feed upon the acorns, it being most Oak that grow in these Woods" (Lefler 1967:33).

This view suggests that the hardwood swamp areas of the Inner Coastal Plain were highly productive hunting areas. In fact, Santee Jack told Lawson's group that they should not stop until they arrived at the swamp edge because the hunting away from the swamp (presumably in the Inner Coastal Plain's Flatwoods area) "was not good" (Lefler 1967:31-32). This offers some minor ethnographic support for the previously discussed swamp ecology and significance.

An analysis of early historic plat records provides additional information helpful for a thorough understanding of the area's ecology. Plummer reconstructed forest types in Georgia, using original eighteenth century land survey maps which show boundary trees. He notes that:

> species in the Coastal Plain of southeast Georgia numbered 8-14 kinds although lowlands probably supported more numerous taxa. The frequency of pines ranged from 71-99%; gum trees, either black or tupelo, were second ranked, followed by red bay and thin cypress . . . . The vegetation was pine-oak-hickory at a ratio of about 91:1:0.5 occurring on sandy sites and oaks, pines, sweet gum, hickory at about 42:20:7.6 on clayey sites (Plummer 1975:16).

Consequently, both the currently available data and this brief review of historic sources agree that the four county area might be defined by low swamp bottomlands which contain a wide variety of important subsistence items, and a sandy, rolling upland area which contains only minor subsistence resources because of its pine vegetation and rapidly permeable soils. It is probable that this dichotomy existed by 2,000 B.C. and perhaps as early as 5,000 B.C. (Haag 1975).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Previous Archaeological Studies

Relatively little previous archaeology has been conducted in the four county area. Derting et al. (1991:396-400) list only 36 archaeological or historical studies for Sumter County, 28 for Florence County, 26 for Clarendon County, and only 12 for Williamsburg County. A vast majority of these have resulted from highway studies or are associated with other compliance situations.

One of the earliest studies of a substantial tract in Sumter County is that conducted by Cultural Heritage Research Services of Shaw Air Force Base and Poinsett Range (Brown et al. 1983). Fifteen sites (11 prehistoric and four historic) were identified from surveys of the Shaw Air Force Base, to the southwest of the current study, and of Poinsett Range, in Manchester State Park. This work proposed that historic sites, "would occur along roads since the roads served as major transportation routes through the historic period" with the result that "all three historic sites were found in high probability areas [i.e., adjacent to old roads which] provides positive evidence for the predicted relationship" (Brown et al. 1983:105).

Brown et al. (1983) also developed a method of identifying high probability areas for prehistoric sites (based on soil productivity and proximity to water). They anticipated that sites would occur in high probability environmental zones which support oak and hickory forests used as "food resource procurement areas (Brown et al. 1983:99). Archaeological sites, however, were more commonly found in the moderate probability areas. No explanation was offered, except that "due to the nature of the soils in the project area the only soils which have high crop productivity and occur in close proximity to a water source are those which generally are found along intermittent streams (Brown et al. 1983:101).

Although not clearly stated, the implication is that of the two (soils and water), proximity to a constant or major water source was more significant than the specific soils. This may be an indication that sites were primarily situated to take advantage of faunal resources (especially those closely associated with the palustrine resources of the swamp edge), with a secondary focus on plant food resources. Consequently, site patterning continues to be an important archaeological research question.

The 1983 S.C. Department of Highways and Public Transportation survey of the U.S. 521 relocation, north of the City of Sumter, revealed a fairly low density of prehistory sites (26.7% of the sites contained prehistoric components, with only one yielding Woodland pottery). Although based on a small sample, it was observed that regardless of time period, aboriginal sites appeared:

> to be strongly associated with lowland swamp edges. They are uncommon to rare in the upland areas such as were crossed by the U.S. 521 survey corridor. This is probably the result of the lowland swamp edges being a favored ecotone position for the exploitation of wildlife (Trinkley and Caballero 1983c:50).

In addition, the study concluded that these prehistoric sites, most especially Woodland sites, were probably most closely associated with larger drainages. The size and density of Woodland sites was thought to decrease "as you move up drainages such as Green Swamp" to the headwaters (Trinkley and Caballero 1983c:50). This was likely correlated with the decreasing subsistence potential of these drainages. The research also found that those sites associated with the smaller drainages gave the appearance of being limited, and special, use sites, perhaps representing very short-term encampments.

None of these observations are startling and all were anticipated by Ward's survey of White's Creek in Marlboro County (Ward 1978). These sites are presumed by various researchers (see, for example, Brooks and Scurry 1980) to represent seasonal camps for the exploitation of deer and nut resources.

These same findings are repeated in other Upper Coastal Plain settings. For example, a major study of the 2700 acre Florence County Santee Cooper Pee Dee Electrical Generating Station in 1984, located in a similar environmental context, identified 103 cultural resources, including 38 prehistoric sites, 33 historic sites, and 32 standing structures (Taylor 1984). A very similar study was conducted by Chicora Foundation on 1400 acres for Roche Carolina, also in Florence County (Trinkley and Adams 1992). Forty-two archaeological sites were identified as a result of this work, with several prehistoric and historic sites receiving data recovery (Trinkley et al. 1993). The most intensively used environmental zones are consistently the bluff edge and along minor tributaries. Upland areas were only lightly used, primarily by Woodland Period groups.

One of the few other data recovery studies for the general area is the work by Blanton et al. (1986) at a small Yadkin site in Sumter County. Although a long temporal period of use was identified, the most intensive use was by Yadkin groups and radiocarbon dates spanning 520 to 180 B.C. were obtained. The study also focused on the manufacture of Yadkin pottery and its association with small triangular projectile points. The authors suggest a settled, but relatively short-term occupation, noting the presence of caching behavior possibly suggests a seasonal occupation. They also observed possible concentrations of materials indicative of patterned use of the site area.

For historic settlement, the various studies have found that eighteenth century sites were located either on the bluff edge, or along major roads. In the nineteenth century the bluff edge was abandoned and settlements were almost exclusively "road-oriented," although they may be set back from the road as much as 300 feet. By the early twentieth century the settlement pattern is less defined, with tenant sites occurring in a variety of locations.

The information in the historic section may be combined with the existing site inventory and the various Sumter and Florence surveys to offer some observations and expectations. Sumter County received only sporadic occupation prior to the middle of the eighteenth century, so that sites prior to 1750 are expected to be exceedingly rare. After 1750 and until about 1800, sites are expected to be sparse and, away from the Sandhills, represent the sites of small subsistence yeoman farms. These may have very indistinct archaeological signatures and be difficult to recognize, perhaps being revealed by very small scatters of primarily lead glazed slipware and pearlware ceramics. Certainly sites with these late eighteenth and early nineteenth century ceramics should be carefully examined.

After the spread of cotton early in the nineteenth century, sites are expected to be more common. As suggested by Brown et al. (1983) historic sites through the nineteenth century will probably be situated on the uplands, adjacent (although at various distances) to roads. This is suggested not only the emphasis on roads (which were exceptionally poor according to Mills [1972:746]), but also by the comments concerning the unhealthy climate of the lowlands (Mills 1972:746 [1826]). It is therefore probable that major historic sites will be found in the uplands, away from the swamps, and adjacent to the major roads illustrated by Mills in his *Atlas*. In essence, we expect to see an orientation toward roads (found more commonly in the uplands), a more healthful climate (away from the swamps), and agricultural lands (which until recently have been synonymous with upland sandy soils).

Late historic sites, most particularly tenant sites, likely show evidence of Prunty's dispersed settlement model, although a few of the old plantation roads may still be found.

Existing information on prehistoric sites suggests that while occupations of all temporal periods are present, most fall into the Woodland

period. Most of these sites, in turn, are associated with a small drainage. Use of soil types, particularly the use of soil productivity, to identify areas of high archaeological potential may not be a viable approach because of soil evolution and inherent problems in correlating the soil information with cultural requirements. As Brown et al. (1983:101) suggest, a more useful predictive feature than soil productivity may be biotic zones. In the Poinsett Range survey tract Brown et al. (1983:Figure 27) note that their predictive zone of moderate site potential (which was actually the zone of highest site discovery) correlates with the edge of drainages and Carolina bays.

Recently, Brooks et al. (1996) are returning to the examination of Carolina bays as focal points for archaeological occupation. They are finding that these bays were likely wetter, and more permanent, than they are today. In addition, they argue that our "fluvial-centric" models, such as is being discussed here, need to be revised to include, and understand the importance of, these seemingly isolated uplands ponds. In effect, they note that the environment presented by these bays would have been very similar to swamp edge and would likely have provided access to the same types of faunal and floral resources.

Because of the very limited research at Upper Coastal Plain sites there are a broad range of significant research questions. These, just briefly outlined here, form the context for site assessments.

For prehistoric sites, we still have an inadequate understanding of the Yadkin typology, although the work by Blanton et al. (1986), followed by Trinkley et al. (1993) has dramatically expanded our understanding. While Blanton et al. (1986) focused on technological attributes of the pottery, Trinkley et al. (1993) focused on efforts to place the ware within a typological framework. Coupled with technological and typological questions are those associated with the temporal placement (or length) of the Yadkin phase.

There are likewise a broad range of questions surrounding the lithics typically found associated with these types of swamp edge sites. For example, Blanton et al. explored the small triangular points, using metric studies to distinguish point sizes fitting the previously established Clarksville, Caraway, and Yadkin types. While there was convincing evidence that the Clarksville and Caraways were, in fact, projectile points, there were tantalizing suggestions that the Yadkin "points" may actually have been knives. In addition, they explored the "mobility scale" of the Woodland group, based on the amounts of different raw materials present.

Likewise, there is relatively little understanding of the settlement and subsistence systems. The seasonal evidence found by Blanton et al. (1983) at the small Yadkin site in Sumter was largely supported by the Florence work, where a framework of social aggregation and seasonal household dispersal was suggested, with the studied site representing a possible seasonal settlement by a kin-based family unit. It is tempting to suggest that both the Sumter and Florence work focused on similar types of sites. This leaves unexplored the larger sites found spread along vast expanses of bluff edge overlooking dense swamp.

Just as there are relatively few studies of Upper Coastal Plain prehistoric sites, there is little historical archaeology from this region, the most notable exception being recent at the Roche Carolina tract (Trinkley et al. 1993). There are, however, a few studies from other areas which are essential to the formulation of a research context.

Excavations at a manager's site (38BK397), situated on Daniels Island in Berkeley County on the Lower Coastal Plain, revealed an occupation from about 1899 through about 1907. The site, while plowed, appeared to be relatively intact and offered the opportunity to explore yard proximics utilizing the research of the Richland/Chambers project (Raab 1983; Jurney et al. 1983) where evidence of yard cleaning, accumulation of debris in specific areas, and activity area differentiation was possible. Adams (1980), from excavations at the late nineteenth century Waverly Plantation, also found evidence of patterning, with a very low artifact distribution near structures. The surface data from 38BK397 failed to reveal any recognizable patterns, although the excavated data

revealed what the authors term a "diffusion-from-the-center" pattern, with the density decreasing as collection units become more distant from the structure (Brockington et al. 1985:228). The highest artifact density is encountered under the house, with moderately dense deposits found in the near back and side yards.

Similar analysis of yard trash associated with a late nineteenth-early twentieth century tenant site in Horry County (38HR131), also situated on the Lower Coastal Plain, revealed somewhat similar patterns of trash disposal (Trinkley and Caballero 1983a). Concentrations were found on either side of the house, with a specific trash dump identified in the rear far yard of the structure. Since the structure was standing at the time of the work it was not possible to examine under the house or porch for artifact density. Work by McBride (1984) also found that late nineteenth and early twentieth century low status sites in Barton, Mississippi tended to have refuse scattered in the near yard, declining in density in the far yard areas (typically 30 feet or so).

Although not a major theme of their research Zierden et al. (1986) explored several additional tenant assemblages on Daniels Island in the Lower Coastal Plain. One of the more interesting discoveries was that at both sites the percentage ratio of container glass to utilitarian ceramics was between 23 and 26% to about 3%, compared to earlier nineteenth century ratios of 2 - 4% to 9 - 18%, clearly distinguishing the sites from both planter and slave (Zierden et al. 1986:7-13). Curiously, this same preponderance of glass was found at piedmont tenant sites by Trinkley and Caballero (1983b), where the shift away from coarse earthenwares was explained by the decline in glass prices during the last several decades of the nineteenth century and the early twentieth century.

Of the few tenant sites explored in the vicinity is 38SU81 (Trinkley et al. 1985). Here test excavations revealed a dense late nineteenth and early twentieth century settlement (pre-dating 1924, when the site is documented to have been abandoned). The excavated assemblage revealed 77.8% of the collection was kitchen related, with only 10.7% being architectural. Activity related artifacts account for an additional 10.0% of the assemblage. Glassware accounted for 49.3% of the Kitchen Artifact Group and 38.3% of the total assemblage, while ceramics accounts for only 24.1% of the Kitchen Group or 18.4% of the total assemblage. It's not clear whether the difference between the proportion of ceramics and glass at this site compared to the Daniel Island research is affected by its geographic location, social status, or perhaps temporal span. Nevertheless, it does reveal the exceptional amount of research which is still necessary at these sties. Flatwares accounted for 92.3% of the identifiable whitewares, with hollowwares accounting for 4.6% of the collection.

Kennedy et al. (1991) explored the difference between two structures on Hilton Head Island in Beaufort County, South Carolina (38BU966 and 38BU967) — one belonging to a small African American land owner and the other associated with a black who was probably a cash-renter. Both dated from the last decade of the nineteenth century into the first decade of the twentieth century. Not surprisingly, they found recognizable differences in the artifact assemblage of the two sites, with the owner site evidencing more ceramic sets, a larger minimum number of individual ceramics, a greater diversity of ceramic forms and types, and an overall higher artifact frequency. Perhaps of more interest is that both sites exhibited a low incidence of hollow vessels (such as bowls) in favor of plates. This seems to suggest that these black farmers were forsaking the one-pot stews so common in slavery -- indicative of a basic change in foodways. Examination of the floral and faunal remains is less convincing, with the floral remains indicating primarily domesticates, while the faunal remains suggesting a diet of both domesticates (primarily pig) and wild animals (Kennedy et al. 1991:126). Tin cans, indicative of processed foods, are nearly absent.

While not specifically dealing with tenancy, two reports are worthy of special mention because of their comparative value. One is the research conducted at the freedmen site of Mitchelville (38BU805) on Hilton Head Island (Trinkley 1986), which provides a baseline for immediate post slavery freedmen settlement, subsistence, status,

and artifact pattern studies. Spanning the period from about 1863 through about 1890, the site offers a unique view of how slaves were transformed into wage earners, owners, or tenants. Another equally significant, albeit brief, study is that of the Midway slave settlement in Georgetown County (also on the Lower Coastal Plain of South Carolina). At this site Smith (1986) examined a small sample of slave settlement occupied from at least the last decade before the Civil War until about 1890. Consequently, the site spans almost equal periods of slavery and freedom, offering an assemblage somewhat akin to Mitchelville, but not organized around an "urban" concept. The Millwood data, in fact, may be similar to the work gang system used by plantation owners immediately after the Civil War. While not emphasizing the transitional nature of the collection, Smith (1986:53) does observe that the resulting artifact pattern "appears to be unusual."

From nearby Florence County, research at 38FL240 provided an opportunity to explore the transition from slavery to tenancy at an interior settlement. In comparison with low country slave sites, the Gibson Plantation shows no improvement -- the artifacts are sparse and the assemblage is impoverished; the dwelling investigated is even more cramped than those on the coast; the diet reflects the same monotonous regimen of pork probably supplemented with corn meal. Since there seems to be good evidence that the effects of slavery were at least slightly ameliorated by the wealth and success of the master, it seems likely that slavery was even more overpowering at interior plantations since wealth was concentrated on the coast. The study also suggested that the diet of the freedmen on the plantation did not dramatically improve and, in fact, it appeared to get more monotonous, with less diversity in the foods present. There still was little opportunity, even in freedom, to supplement the diet with the range of wild plant and animal foods present near the site. While the diversity and quantity of artifacts slowly increased, what was most noticeable is how many of the artifacts of slavery seem to quickly drop out of the assemblage as the freedmen turned their backs on them.

Consequently, edged and annular wares are a small percentage of the assemblage, bowls are quickly replaced by plates, more elaborate clothing and personal items are found. Other signs of freedom include a greater effect on the landscape and a gradually increasing diversity in housing forms and features. One of the most interesting features is the low incidence of tobacco related items on the sites, even when the effects of cigarettes and chewing tobacco are factored in. It is suggested that tobacco might also have been strongly associated with slavery and may be another symbol of the past rejected by the freedmen.

While conducted in the piedmont, rather than the coastal plain, the efforts by Joseph et al. (1991) at the Finch Farm (38SP101) in Spartanburg County, South Carolina are also worthy of brief mention. Excavations at the main house, as well as at two structures found little distinction in artifact assemblages. They observe that the owner distinguished himself from his tenants through architecture and the settlement plan, with the material culture perhaps being of little consequence since he did not regularly interact with his social contemporaries. They, as others, noticed that cheaper production "made the bottle and jar ubiquitous artifacts of little value," but also remark that these items, not being burnable and capable of quickly encompassing yards, were hauled to "non-productive locations" for dumping (Joseph et al. 1991:258-259).

From this previous research comes a series of obvious concerns over identifying the material basis of tenancy (and comparing that basis with both higher and lower status occupations), identifying the subsistence remains typically associated with tenancy, exploring the nature of the refuse patterns associated with tenant sites, and examining the different artifact patterns. There has been relatively little attention devoted to exploring the shift from slavery to tenancy, probably because the overlap is great and our analytical precision is rather ineffectual at this level. Likewise, there has been relatively little effort to translate the studies into an understanding of what life as a tenant was like (beyond the information available in historical accounts). We hope to avoid giving the reader the uneasy feeling or impression that archaeology can

contributed little toward our understanding of tenancy. While many of the studies cited date from the 1980s, archaeological exploration of tenancy has had an uneven history, being plagued by waves of interest and activity, only to then be ignored. The unevenness of the research interest and support has likely caused many researchers to stop short of a full commitment of time and resources. Consequently, at least in the Inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina, we are still in a data acquisition phase which is essential prior to any significant theoretical breakthroughs can be claimed.

Prehistory of the Region

The Paleo-Indian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleo-Indian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleo-Indian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleo-Indian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleo-Indian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited mammal. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coastal plain and piedmont. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stem projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

In the Coastal Plain of the South Carolina there is an increase in the quantity of Early Archaic remains, probably associated with an increase in population and associated increase in the intensity of occupation. While Hardaway and Dalton points are typically found as isolated specimens along riverine environments, remains from the following Palmer phase are not only more common, but are also found in both riverine and interriverine settings. Kirks are likewise common in the coastal plain (Goodyear et al. 1979).

The two primary Middle Archaic phases found in the coastal plain are the Morrow Mountain and Guilford (the Stanly and Halifax complexes identified by Coe are rarely encountered). Our best information on the Middle Woodland comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work in the Little Tennessee River Valley. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and South Carolina, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The Late Archaic is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued the intensive exploitation of the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups. The bulk of our data for this period, however, comes from work in the Uwharrie region of North Carolina.

The Woodland period begins by definition with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast (the introduction of pottery, and hence the beginning of the Woodland period, occurs much later in the Piedmont of South Carolina). It should be noted

that many researchers call the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) pottery (see Figure15 for a synopsis of Woodland phases and pottery designations). The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia.

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens, small, sparse shell middens; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland, sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Coastal Plain, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98).

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing. Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1976). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina. The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders,

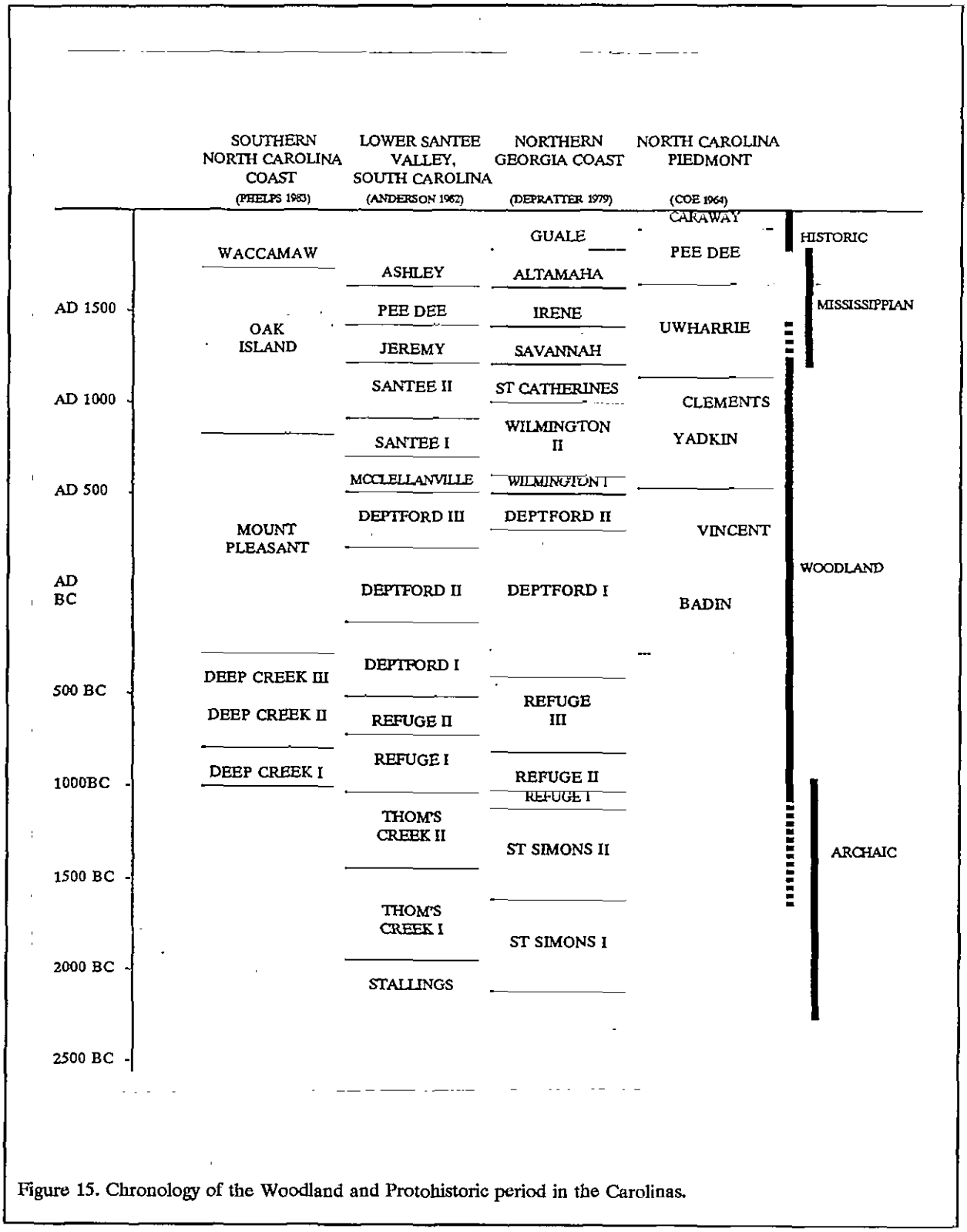

Figure 15. Chronology of the Woodland and Protohistoric period in the Carolinas.

shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are found.

On the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, researchers are finding evidence of a Middle Woodland Yadkin assemblage, best known from Coe's work at the Doerschuk site in North Carolina (Coe 1964:25-26). Yadkin pottery is characterized by a crushed quartz temper and cord marked, fabric impressed, and linear check stamped surface treatments. The Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least A.D. 300 coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin series in South Carolina was first observed by Ward (1978, 1983) from the White's Creek drainage in Marlboro County, South Carolina. Since then, a large Yadkin village has been identified by DePratter at the Dunlap site (38DA66) in Darlington County, South Carolina (Chester DePratter, personal communication 1985) and Blanton et al. (1986) have excavated a small Yadkin site (38SU83) in Sumter County, South Carolina. Anderson et al. (1982:299-302) offer additional typological assessments of the Yadkin wares in South Carolina.

Over the years the suggestion that Cape Fear might be replaced by such types as Deep Creek and Mount Pleasant has raised considerable controversy. Taylor, for example, rejects the use of the North Carolina types in favor of those developed by Anderson et al. (1982) from their work at Mattassee Lake in Berkeley County (Taylor 1984:80). Cable (1991) is even less generous in his denouncement of ceramic constructs developed nearly a decade ago, also favoring adoption of the Mattassee Lake typology and chronology. This construct, recognizing five phases (Deptford I - III, McClellanville, and Santee I), uses a type variety system.

Regardless of terminology, these Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1990:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

The South Appalachian Mississippian Period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest phases include the Savannah and Pee Dee (A.D. 1200 to 1550).

Historic Overview

The project area received little attention until the Yemasee War of 1715 forced many of the Native Americans from the region, allowing a more aggressive settlement policy in the region below the fall line, termed the "lower middle country" (Brown 1963:2; see also Wallace 1951). From about 1715 to 1727 there was a period of tremendous lust for land, with the accompanying fraud so common to period politics. In 1730 Governor Robert Johnson began a policy of frontier settlement, hinged on the creation of 11 townships and intended to increase the number of small, white farmers. This increased settlement would provide protection from South Carolina's enemies from within (as the African American slaves were viewed) and from without

(including both the Spanish and the Native Americans).

With the creation of Georgia, only nine of the proposed 11 townships were actually established. One of these was Queensborough, 20,000 acres situated on the east and west sides of the Pee Dee River. A second was Williamsburg Township situated on the northern banks of the Santee River and bisected, north to south, by the Black River (Figure 16). The Queensborough boundaries have frequently been extended to include a large portion of southern Florence County (see King 1981:5).

Settlement in Queensborough was sporadic and limited, at least partially because the topography and soils were better suited to large plantations than to small farms. The rather limited high ground area was quickly obtained by a limited number of settlers (Merriwether 1940:89-90). Williamsburg, on the other hand, was quite successful. Initially settled by Irish Protestants a number of successful indigo plantations developed along the Black River (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:79) (Figure 17).

Very early on these townships were the subject of land speculation. As early as 1733 investors from Charleston would take the Charleston to Charlottsburg wagon road north from Childsbury on the Cooper River up to and across the Santee River (Barr 1996). Even at this early date a number of enterprising individuals had established ferry crossings and taverns to serve the needs of these travelers (Merrens 1977:113-118).

As settlement increased, the economy of the region became oriented toward both mixed agricultural production, supplying the needs of the Georgetown rice plantations (see Rogers 1970:27) and also to the cash crop of indigo (Rogers

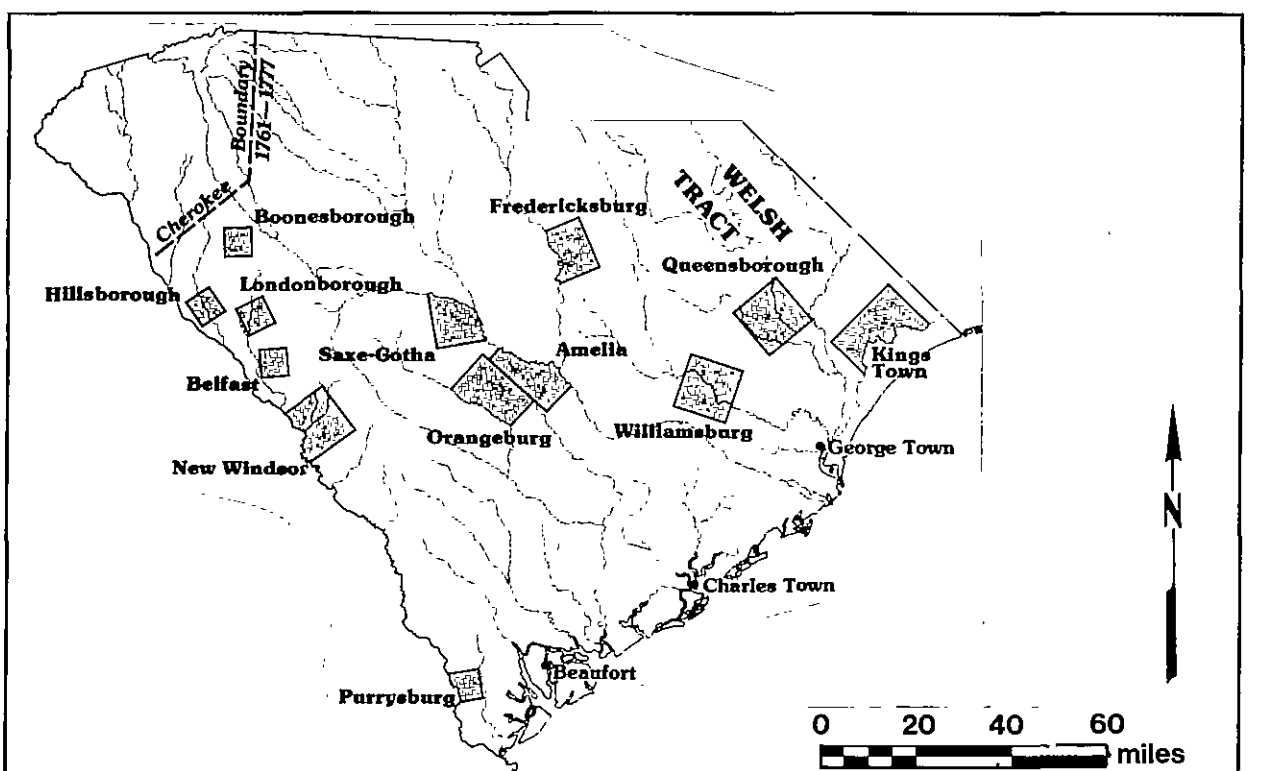

Figure 16. Townships established in South Carolina, 1731-1765 (adapted from Kovacik and Winberry 1989:79; Figure 5.3)

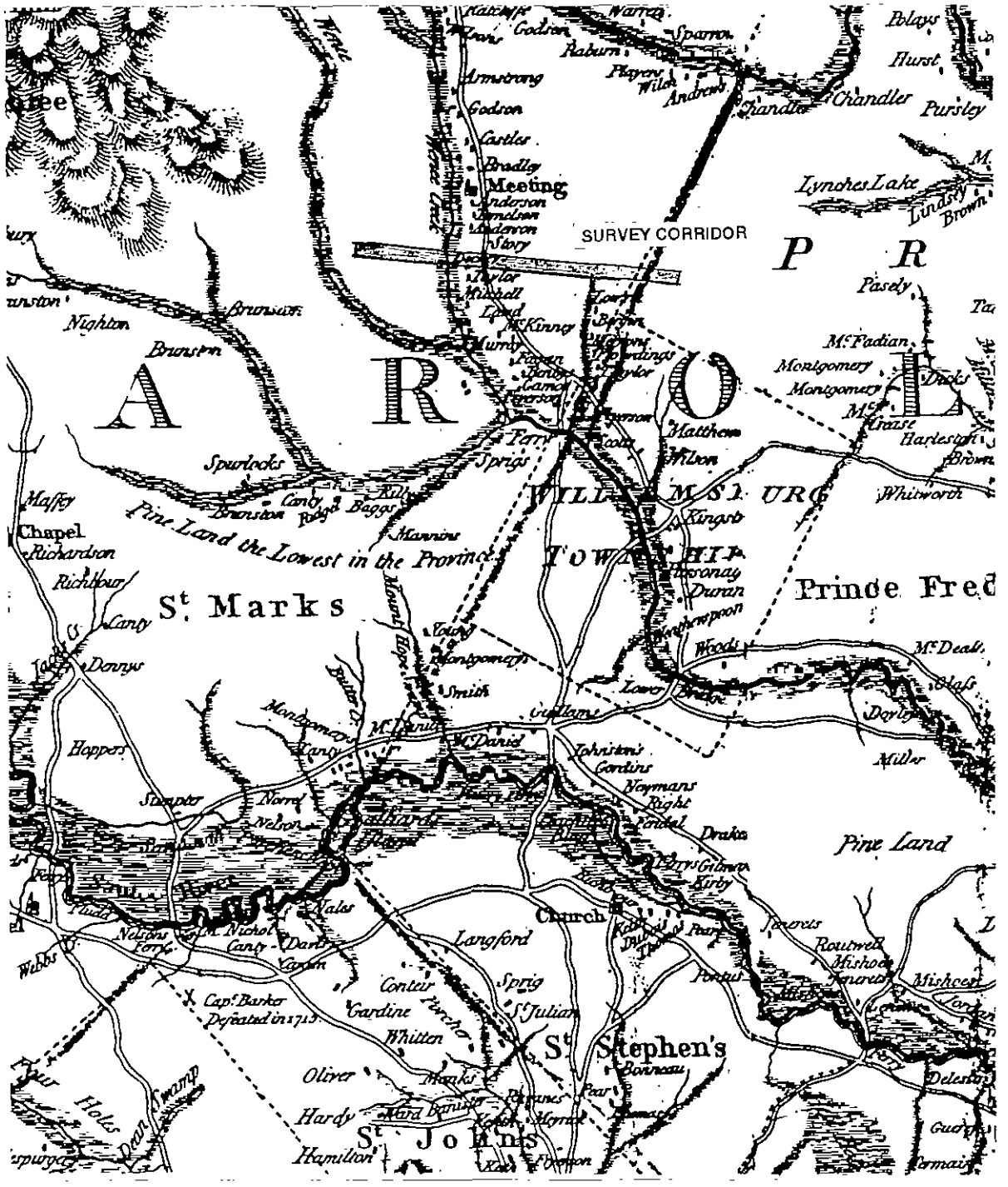

Figure 17. A portion of *An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina* by Mouzon (1775) showing Williamsburg Township and settlement in the project area.

1970:52-53; Suzanne Linder, personal communication 1992).

The industry also flourished because of its unusual advantages — an indirect bounty, a protective tariff, and a monopoly on the British market during the various wars which cut off access to the better Spanish and French indigo supplies (Sharrer 1971). At the end of King George's War in 1748, many Carolina planters returned to rice. Indigo cultivation continued, but it was always of poor quality, typically the cheapest "copper indigo" quality. Carolina planters failed to pay close attention to the exacting requirements of processing, and the result was disastrous. According to Winberry, "importers also noticed that in many of the casks there was nothing but a black spongy substance producing a muddy effect, as if the indigo were mixed with soil" (Winberry 1979:248).

While geographically part of the "low country," the Florence and Williamsburg region was too remote and isolated from the seat of government in Charleston to feel the "taming influences of church and state" (King 1981:7). More to the point, however, there were a variety of serious complaints the Pee Dee region (as well as the rest of the "lower middle country") had with Charleston. In 1767 citizens of the region petitioned Charleston, noting:

> Married Women have been ravished - virgins deflowered, and other unheard of cruelties committed by these barbarous Ruffians - who, by being let loose among us (and connived at) by the Acting Magistrates, have thereby reduced numbers of Individuals to Poverty (quoted in King 1981:7).

The region's repeated requests for assistance to stem the tide of lawlessness were rejected, creating a division between the wealthy planter elite of Charleston and the small farmers of the interior. In the wake of the broken trust the Regulator Movement was formed, the most significant vigilante movement in the pre-Revolutionary back country (see Brown 1963 for additional details). By the summer of 1768 the Regulators, to many, had become the criminals.

The establishment of judicial districts for the South Carolina back country in April 1768 offered some political stability for the region. What is today northern Florence County was placed in the Cheraws District (St. David's Parish), with court located at Long Bluff on the Pee Dee, near Society Hill. The southern part of Florence County, including the survey tract, remained in the Georgetown Judicial District of Prince Frederick Parish (Wallace 1951:166). Other portions of the survey corridor were located in the Camden District which was considered part of St. Marks at that time. Typical of the region's distrust of authority, Long Bluff quickly became known as a "resort of judges and lawyers" and in spite of this improvement in the political system, the residents still lacked free schools, adequate bridges and roads, and ordinances to provide for the safe navigation of the Pee Dee River.

In 1757 the white population of the area later to become Florence County was approximately 4300, while there were only about 500 black slaves. This predominance of white farmers was typical of the entire back country and, to some degree, exacerbated the differences between the low country and the back country. Certainly the back country was little concerned with world affairs during the last half of the eighteenth century. Instead, the region continued to turn inward, working to improve both land and river navigation. The Cheraw-Georgetown stagecoach road was established in 1747, but it wasn't until 1768 that a public ferry across the Pee Dee was established on James Welch Tract property (King 1981:18).

Mouzon's map (see Figure 17) reveals that although settlement along the Black River and other drainages was substantial, very few settled on interior lands. The map reveals that a well established dendritic road network was already in place north of the Santee River by the mid to late-eighteenth century.

While the Revolutionary history of the

four county region is complex, it is well documented by King (1981), Rankin (1973) and Lipscomb (1991). Divisions in political loyalty apparent in the areas population during the Regulator Movement became manifest during the American Revolution. The area became a hotbed of Revolutionary War activity. Although most of the action consisted of maneuvers and partisan activities, there were a number of notable engagements which took place. In 1780 these include engagements at Black Mingo on September 28-29 in Williamsburg County, at Tearcoat Swamp on October 25, in Clarendon County and Halfway Swamp and Singleton's Mill on December 13, along the Clarendon-Sumter county line. In March of 1781 the British captured Snow Island, as well as an engagement at Witherspoon's Ferry that same month in Florence County. Also that same month engagements were fought at Mount Hope Swamp and Lower Bridge in Williamsburg County and at Wiboo Swamp on March 6 in Clarendon County. Fort Watson, in Clarendon County, came under attack on February 27 with a siege conducted between April 15 through 23. In Florence County, in 1782, a skirmish took place at Black Creek, as well as the Lynches Creek Massacre (Lipscomb 1991). None of these, however, are in the immediate survey area.

By September 1781 the British abandoned the back country, fleeing to Charleston and fighting in the Pee Dee region ended with the June 1782 surrender of Tory forces. On December 14, 1782 the British evacuated Charleston, ending the southern campaign of the American Revolution.

The transition from war to peace appears to have come rapidly to the Pee Dee region. Prince Frederick Parish, the political subdivision of Georgetown District which then encompassed a portion of the study area, sustained the majority of war activity. Yet by 1790 the Parish contained 3500 whites and 4500 slaves, figures which Rogers (1970:158-169) interprets to show that social and economic recovery after the Revolution was reasonably rapid.

Shortly after the Revolution efforts were again made to make the political divisions of the region more responsive. In 1785 the new districts of Marlboro, Chesterfield, and Darlington were created in the Cheraw's District. Modern Florence County was contained within Marion, Darlington, and Marlboro districts. Within portions of the study area Clarendon and Clairmont were created (see Stauffer 1994).

The period from about 1784 until 1860 is characterized a maturing of the economic and, especially, agricultural potential of the region. By 1820 the Pee Dee had been made navigable up to Cheraw and it was noted that:

> cotton has been carried from Chatham [Cheraw Hill] and Society Hill to Georgetown fort seventy-five cents the bale; whereas it could not be carried the same distance by land for less than two dollars, or by water by the former navigation for less than one dollar and twenty-five cents (Kohn 1938:85).

The rivers throughout the region continued to serve as the primary means for the transportation of people and supplies in and out of the area until the arrival of the railroads in the late 1840s and early 1850s. Land transportation routes, although important to local social and economic lifeways, continued to be unreliable at best and life threatening at worst.

Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 (Figures 18) shows only three subscribers near the project area. This would include Benjamin Lavender and James Coker, east of Douglas Swamp, and Z. Dubose west of Douglas Swamp. Yet, much like Mouzon's map these are found to exist primarily along roads that parallel river drainages. His map also reveals that the road system in this area had changed very little since 1775.

By 1820 the Sumter, Darlington, and Williamsburg Districts had a combined population of 45,034, of which over 56%, or 25,369, lived in Sumter alone. Of the combined totals, 26,480, or about 59%, were African American slaves and 508 were freed blacks. Compared to the 1800 census, there was a fairly significant increase in the

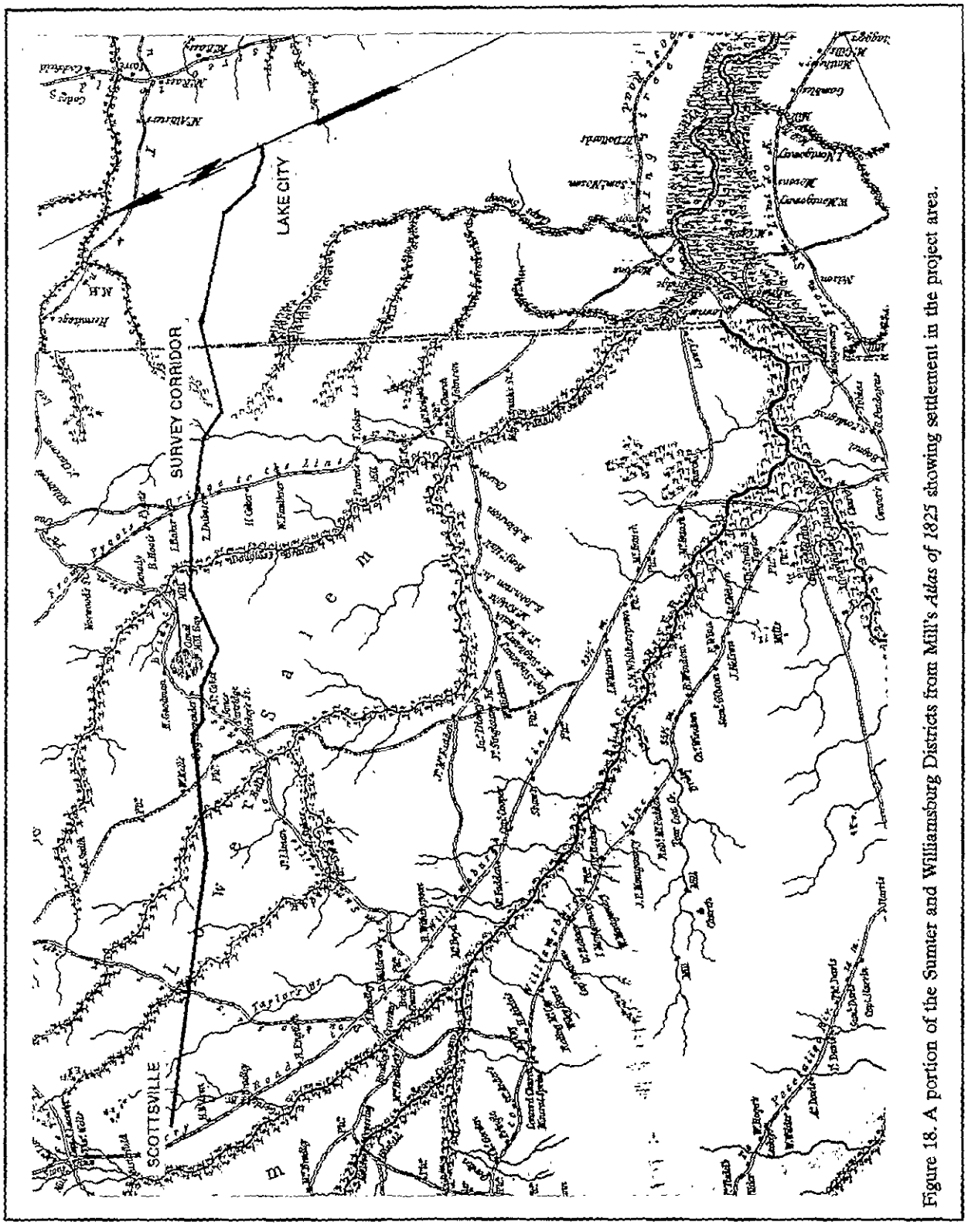

Figure 18. A portion of the Sumter and Williamsburg Districts from Mill's *Atlas of 1825* showing settlement in the project area.

proportion of black slaves in the district, probably the result of an increasing emphasis on cotton (Mills 1972:516, 747-748, 767 [1826]).

The proportion of African-American slaves continued to increase in these three districts. By 1850 slaves accounted for nearly 67% of the total population, again, a vast majority living in Sumter (DeBow 1854:302). The area had a combined total of 2,654 farms, accounting for a total of 419,796 acres. The average farm size ranged from 1,107 acres in Williamsburg to 653 acres in Sumter (DeBow 1854:304). Unimproved land accounted for about 79% of the total acreage. Darlington was the ninth largest grower of cotton, producing 13,005 bales, for an average of about 15 bales per farm (DeBow 1854:306).

Florence in some ways was better treated by the Civil War than it had been by the Revolution. The Pee Dee Rifles were created in July 1861 and joined as Company D of the First South Carolina Regiment, as well as the Pee Dee Light Artillery (King 1981:46). In November 1862 a site just above the Wilmington and Manchester Railroad was selected by the Confederate Navy for the Pee Dee Navy Yard. One of the three completed vessels of this yard was the CSS Pee Dee, which was scuttled March 1865. King reports that the propellers of the gunboat were "salvaged" in 1926 while the hull was removed from the Pee Dee River in the 1950s. When it failed as a tourist attraction in the Florence area it was moved to the South of the Border Complex near Dillon (King 1981:55-56). Still unsuccessful as a tourist attraction, these remains were apparently destroyed during the construction of I-95 (Hartley n.d.).

The closest the war ever got to Florence was the creation of a Confederate prison in September 1864. Widely recognized as comparable to Andersonville in brutality and cruelty, the camp functioned for only five months before the advancing Union army necessitated its abandonment. At least 2800 Union soldiers, or about 560 a month, died at the 24 acre camp (King 1974).

Sherman's troops passed to the northwest of Florence, leaving the town and the Pee Dee region little worse for the experience. Eventually, the 167th New York Infantry occupied Florence, ensuring at least in the short term its reconstruction (King 1981:60). In spite of military occupation, violence was typical during the reconstruction period and Florence saw considerable Klan activity into the early twentieth century.

Farmers in the area, like elsewhere in South Carolina, experimented with wage labor immediately after the Civil War. Faced with uncertainty, but the need to begin planting immediately, many accepted the wage labor solution begun by the Union Army and latter espoused by the Freedman's Bureau. To support the wage system no less than seven major types of contracts were used by Southern planters (see Sholmowitz 1979). This system, however, was doomed to failure, being disliked by both the Freedmen, who found it too reminiscent of slavery, and the plantation owners, who found that it gave the Freedmen too much liberty. In response to both the Freedman's Bureau and the growing freedom the blacks, the South Carolina legislature passed the Black Codes in September 1865. These extended the restrictions placed on blacks and, in Charles Orser's words, "the Black Code had established what whites wanted for blacks: a nominal freedom that would lead them to a new kind of slavery" (Orser 1988:50).

The creation of Florence as a new county im 1888 began what King (1981) calls an era of "boasterism," loudly proclaiming the benefits of Florence. One example is the advertisement of Florence County at the 1895 Atlanta Cotton Exposition:

> . . . situated as she is, the great railroad center of eastern South Carolina, surrounded by lands which produce corn, wheat, rye, oats, tobacco, rice, sugarcane, cotton, potatoes, onion, and vegetables of all kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plums, grapes, berries, melons in profusion, whose forests contain most of the woods of commerce, with water

> power and easy access to fuel for manufacturing, Florence County presents an inviting field for investment and immigration (quoted in King 1981:168).

This advertisement is interesting since it begins the promotion of tobacco in Florence County, as well as encourages immigration.

Table 2.
Cotton and Tobacco in Florence County from 1900 through 1930

	Cotton		Tobacco	
Year	acres	lbs	acres	lbs
1900	37,966	17,707	3,961	2,995,410
1910	56,590	36,062	5,052	4,362,338
1920	59,768	38,797	17,060	11,991,883
1930	31,253	11,259	25,201	19,221,611

Tobacco was a growing concern during this period, with the first tobacco growers association formed in 1895. Tobacco was referred to "Our Nicotiana Tobacum - Pearl of the Pee Dee." That same year there were 139 tobacco growers, with most planing around 5 acres and the largest planting only 40 acres (King 1981:170). By the mid-1890s the average profit on an acre of tobacco was $150 to $200 an acre, well over the $10 an acre provided by cotton.

Coupled with the increased planting of tobacco were efforts to bring tobacco markets to South Carolina. The first tobacco warehouse auction in South Carolina was organized by Frank Rodgers in 1890 at his Florence Tobacco Manufacturing and Warehouse Company.

Farmers brought their tobacco to these warehouses from mid-July through September. The tobacco was weighed and stacked in long rows on the floor for sale, with the auctions being memorable social events, often compared to fairs. When the auctions were over, the buildings continued to be a focal point in the community, being used for political rallies, tobacco exhibits, and social events.

This last decade of the nineteenth century marked the culmination of 30 years of effort to remove blacks for the political process and to re-assert white supremacy. The 1895 South Carolina Constitutional Convention almost totally disenfranchised blacks and the Federal government's retreat from its duty to protect the freedom of black citizens was symbolized by the 1896 Supreme Court decision of Plessy v. Ferguson which established the doctrine of "separate but equal." The Ku Klux Klan remained active in Florence County well into the 1920s, with the 1923Confederate Veteran's Reunion in 1923 marking the climax of their activity (King 1981:331).

Being unable to vote in elections, an increasing number of Florence County blacks "voted with their feet," leaving Florence and South Carolina for the north. This exodus spurred many to encourage immigration into the region, in order to replenish the work force. In spite of this, by 1923 upwards of 100 blacks a month were leaving Florence.

In the most simple of terms, two types of tenancy existed in the south — sharecropping and renting. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay the landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required the tenant to pay a fixed rent in either crops or money. While similar, there were basic differences, perhaps the most significant of which was that the sharecropper was simply a wage laborer who received his portion of the crop from the plantation owner, while the renter paid his rent to the landlord.

Further distinctions can be made between sharecropping, share-renting, and cash-renting (see Table 3). With sharecropping the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the necessary fertilizer, while the landlord supplied everything else, including the land, housing, tools, work animals, feed, and seed. At harvest the crop would be divided, usually equally. In share-renting the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer, while the tenant supplied everything else necessary, including the animals, feed, seed, and tools. At harvest the crop was divided equal to the portion of fertilizer each party provided. Finally, with cash-renting the

landlord supplied the land and the housing, while the tenant supplied everything else. The owner received a fixed rent per acre in cash.

By the late 1920s the boll weevil was reaching the project area and one newspaper editorial reported that the weevil had "put a stop to the lazy man's crop," and that now planting took "brains, money, hard work, and poison to raise cotton hereabouts these days" (quoted in King 1981:338).

Table 3.
Systems of Tenure

	Share-Cropping	Share Renting	Cash Renting
Landlord furnishes:	land housing fuel tools work stock seed half of fertilizer feed for stock	land housing fuel ¼ or ⅓ fertilizer	land housing fuel
Tenant furnishes:	labor half of fertilizer	labor work stock feed for stock tools seed ¾ or ⅔ fertilizer	labor work stock feed for stock tools seed fertilizer
Landlord receives:	½ of crop	¼ or ⅓ of crop	fixed amount in cash or lint cotton
Tenant receives:	½ of crop	¾ or ⅔ of crop	entire crop less fixed amount

The survey area is within the Atlantic Coastal Plain of the Cotton Region, while further to the west (and encompassing most of the South Carolina) was the Black Belt (Woofter 1936). The Atlantic Coastal Plain was characterized by medium sized plantations, while the Black Belt was the heart of the South's oldest Southern cotton plantations. As a consequence of these historical differences the two regions developed distinctively different forms of tenancy.

There was little difference in owner wealth between the two areas and the difference in net income per average plantation ($5,343 compared to $3,087) is partially the result of the smaller average plantation size in the Black Belt. There was considerable difference in the net income of tenants in the two areas. In the Atlantic Coastal Plain croppers averaged $255 and share-renters averaged $426 a year. The tenants in the Black Belt fared far worse, averaging $127 for croppers and $106 for share-renters. In addition, the tenancy rates varied from about 60% in the Atlantic Coastal Plain to 74% in the Black Belt. The Atlantic Coastal Plain tenancy system, however, had a high percentage of wage tenants (10.7%) than did the Black Belt (1.8%).

Florence County was in most respects typical of these findings. The tenancy rate in 1930 was about 66%, slightly higher than the region, but below that typical of the Black Belt. On the other hand, wage renters comprised fully a quarter of the tenants. Florence had nearly equal numbers of white and black tenants — 1927 white tenants (51.6%) and 1807 black tenants (48.4%) in 1930. Yet the white tenants farmed 101,185 acres compared to the blacks' 63,047 acres, suggesting a disproportionate distribution of agricultural wealth.

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

The cultural resources identified during the intensive survey of the 26 mile Scottsville to Lake City 69 kv transmission line survey corridor consists of six sites. Three sites 38SU274,38CR95, and 38FL358, contained prehistoric components, whereas three sites, 38CR94, 38CR96, and 38FL359 contained historic components. Of the six sites recovered, one (38CR96) is considered potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. The remaining five sites are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Newly Identified Sites

38SU274

Site 38SU274 is surface scatter of prehistoric pottery and lithics. The site is located 0.63 mile southeast of the intersection of SC 527 and SC 53, and about 1,827 feet south of SC 53. The central UTM coordinates are N3756900 E577960. The site is situated southeast of the Scottsville 230 kV bay at an elevation of about 20 feet AMSL and the soils are identified as Norfolk sandy loams. Surface visibility at the time of the survey was about 85% (Figure 19).

Artifacts were first encountered in an open field about 340 feet west of a drainage associated with Church Branch. Exhibiting a slight rise to the north and west, this section of the project corridor is currently a fallow field most recently planted in cotton.

Using a grab surface collection, artifacts recovered include one metavolcanic flake and six, small prehistoric sherds. The surface materials were found scattered over an area about 60 feet north-south by 20 feet east-west. A total of nine shovel tests were placed in a north-south by east-west cruciform pattern from the central point of the surface scatter and excavated to a depth of about 1.1 feet. No artifacts were recovered from any of the shovel tests.

The soil profile in this area, revealing about 0.8 foot of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sand over light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) subsoil, suggests that the profile has been mixed, probably from extensive cultivation activities.

Data sets from this site are very sparse. The assemblage is limited and the shovel tests failed to reveal any materials at all. There is no indication of intact features and no material suggestive of features (such as fire cracked rock) was found during surface inspection. In addition, the area has been subjected to extensive plowing which has likely destroyed a majority of the site.

It seems unlikely that this site has the ability to address any of the numerous research questions appropriate to Middle Woodland sites in the project area. Consequently, this site is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No further management activity is recommended.

38CR94

Site 38CR94 is a surface scatter of historic ceramics and glass. The site is located in a drained Carolina Bay 1,700 feet northeast of the intersection of SC 58 and an access road for the turf farm operations conducted at the site. The central UTM coordinates are N3756900 E590560. The site's elevation is about 120 feet AMSL. The site is situated on the edge of a cultivated turf field bisected by a large drainage ditch on the eastern side at an elevation of about 35 feet AMSL. The soil was identified as Ponzer sandy loam. Surface visibility at the time of the survey was 75% (Figure 20).

A controlled surface collection was made

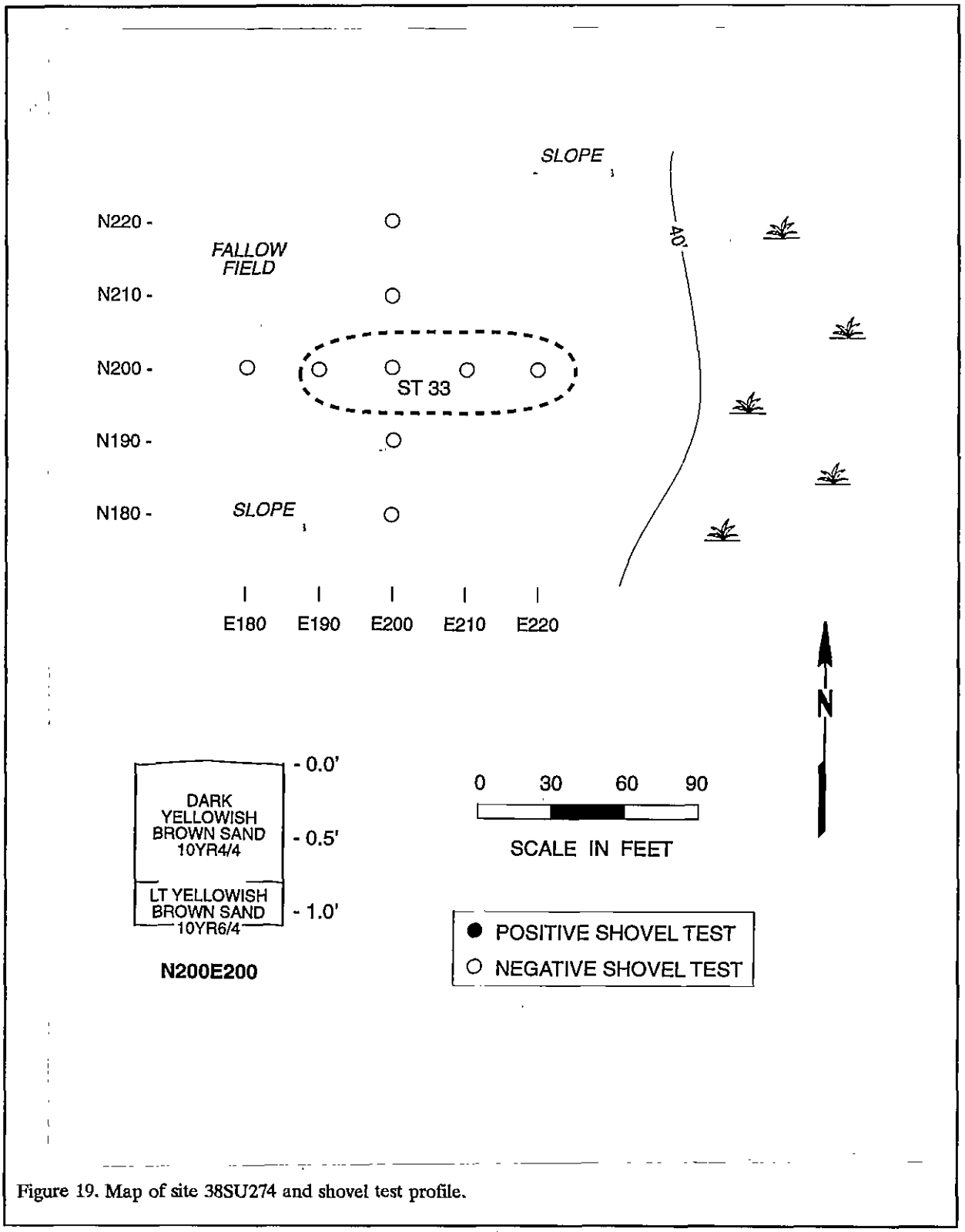

Figure 19. Map of site 38SU274 and shovel test profile.

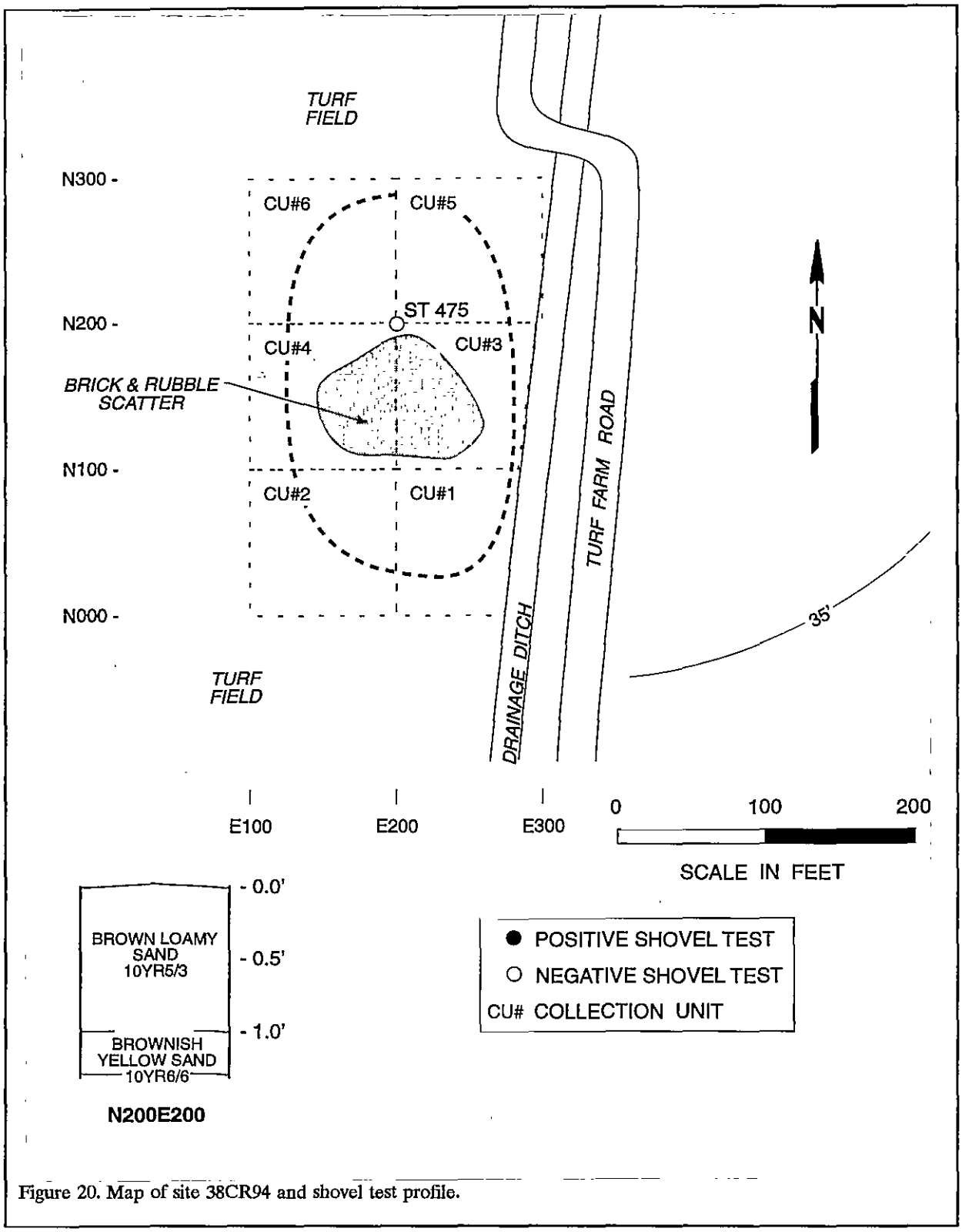

Figure 20. Map of site 38CR94 and shovel test profile.

using a numerically designated 100 foot grid which covered a total of 60,000 square feet. The surface collection recovered a total of 85 artifacts. These included undecorated and decorated whiteware ceramics, porcelain, tile, brick, cinder block, and glass (Table 4). Other than a centrally located shovel test to determine stratigraphy, no subsurface testing was conducted at the site.

These materials are suggestive of a postbellum settlement, perhaps a tenant house, at this location. The mean ceramic date for the collection is 1899.5. Although the presence of architectural materials, bathroom tile, ceramics, and glass clearly suggests a house site in this location, reference to the 1974 *Soil Survey of Clarendon County, South Carolina* (Gerald 1974) shows that the now-drained Carolina Bay was not drained at that time. It is probable that the site is a trash dump utilized by local residents during the early to mid-twentieth century.

The stratigraphic profile of Shovel Test 475 revealed a brown (10YR 5/3) loamy sand to a depth of 1.0 foot and a brownish yellow sand (10YR 6/6) sand to a depth of 1.3 feet. Ponzer soils normally contain a profile of black (N 2/0) mucky loam. The shovel test profile indicates that the bay has undergone a tremendous amount of change as a result of drainage and subsequent agricultural activities.

The data sets present at this site are limited to historic ceramics, glass, and a scatter of brick and cinder block. No features were recovered or observed in the field or in the shovel test. No faunal remains were encountered. There are, consequently, very few data present to address any of the pertinent research questions associated with postbellum (i.e., pre-twentieth century) tenant life. In addition, the diffuse nature of the site, coupled with its smear in the same direction as plowing (north-south) and the absence of brick, suggests that the remains of the trash dump have been extensively scattered by plowing.

Consequently, we recommend this site as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Pending the concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office, no further management activities are necessary.

38CR95

Site 38CR95 is a prehistoric surface find. The site is located about 700 feet east of U.S. 301approximately 1.30 miles from the intersection of U.S. 301 and U.S. 378. The central UTM coordinates are N375200 E592820. The site is situated in a fallow field. Elevation at the site is 120 feet AMSL and the soils are identified as Fuquay loamy sands. Surface visibility at the time of the survey was about 85% (Figure 21).

Only one artifact was encountered in an open field about 200 feet west of a drainage associated with Horse Branch. Exhibiting a slight

Table 4.
Artifacts Recovered From Surface Collections At 38CR94

	Collection Units					
Artifact Type	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whiteware, undecorated		2	1	1	1	4
Whiteware, decalcomainia	1	1	1		1	
Whiteware, gilt decoration	1					
Whiteware, striped	1	2	3	2	1	
Whiteware, tinted	1	3			2	
Whiteware, transfer print						1
Porcelain, decalcomainia		1				
Porcelain, white	4					
Porcelain, blue glaze			1			
Clear glass			1	2	1	2
Blue glass	1	3	2	2	1	1
Green glass	2		2	1	1	1
Brown glass					1	1
Milk glass		3	1	1	3	5
Aqua glass					1	
Opaque glass, green			2	1		
Ceramic tile	2	1			3	1
Rubber doll's foot		1				

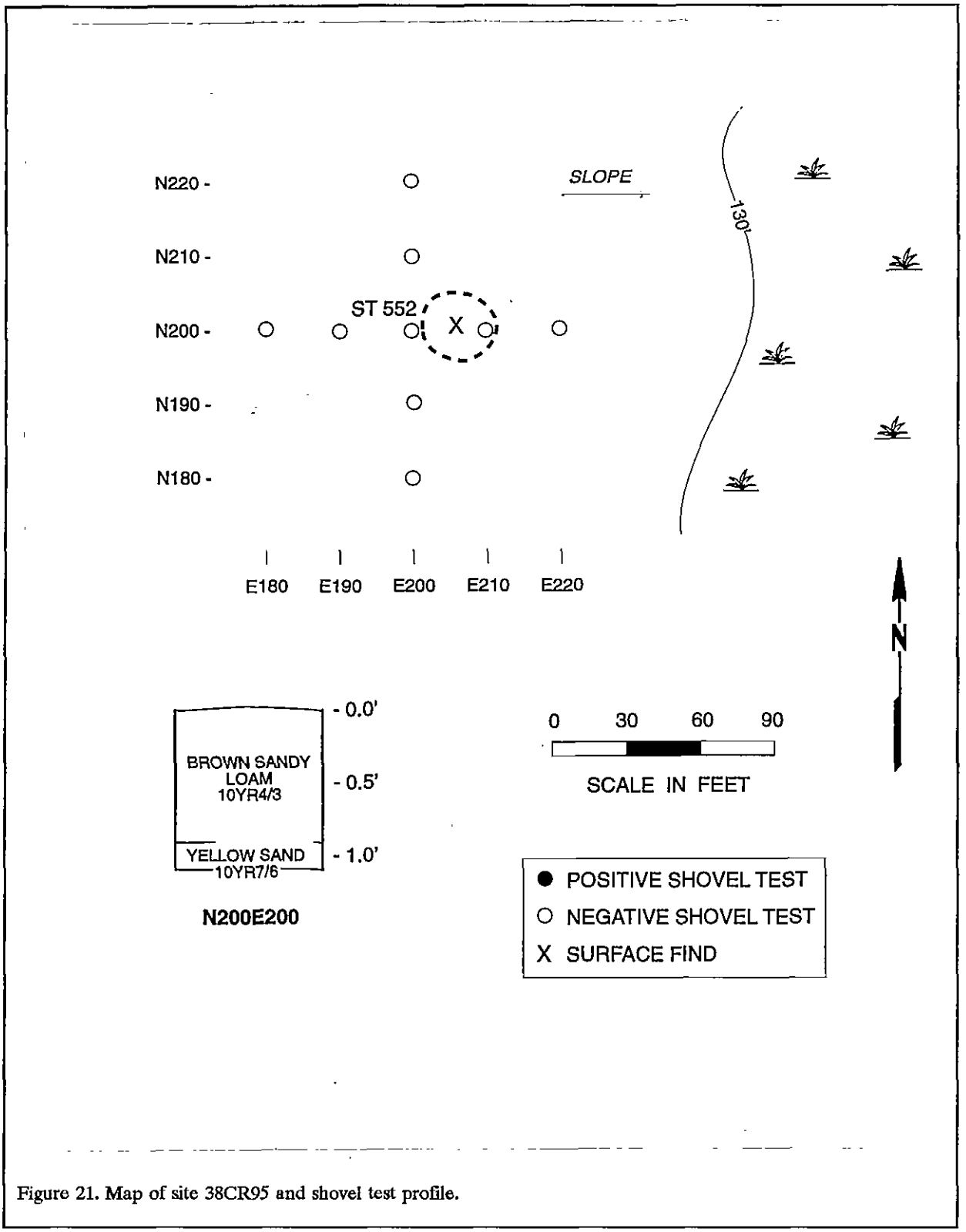

Figure 21. Map of site 38CR95 and shovel test profile.

rise to the west, this section of the project corridor is currently a recently harvested field.

Although an intensive surface search was conducted, only one artifact was recovered; a metavolcanic Guilford lanceolate projectile point measuring 43.08 mm in length, 23.46 mm in width, and 10.34 mm in thickness. A total of nine shovel tests were placed in a north-south by east-west cruciform pattern from the central point of the recovered projectile point and excavated to a depth of about 1.1 feet. No artifacts were recovered from any of the shovel tests.

The soil profile in this area, revealing about 1.0 foot of brown (10YR 4/3) sandy loam over 0.1 foot of yellow (10YR 7/6) sand, suggests that the profile has been mixed, probably from extensive cultivation activities.

Data sets from this site are very sparse. The assemblage is limited and the shovel tests failed to reveal any materials at all. There is no indication of intact features and no material suggestive of features (such as fire cracked rock) was found during surface inspection. In addition, the site has been subjected to extensive plowing which has likely destroyed a majority of the site.

It seems unlikely that this site has the ability to address any of the numerous research questions appropriate to Middle Archaic sites in the project area. Consequently, this site is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No further management activity is recommended.

38CR96

Site 38CR96 is a surface scatter of historic ceramics. The site is located in an open field about 700 feet east of Horse Branch Road (S-14-422) and approximately 1.0 mile north of the intersection of Horse Branch Road and U.S. 378. The central UTM coordinates are N3751520 E594360. The site's elevation is about 108 feet AMSL. The site is situated on the edge of a fallow field. The soil is identified as Lynchburg sandy loam. Surface visibility at the time of the survey was 75% (Figure 22).

Table 5.
Mean Ceramic Date for 38CR96

Ceramic	Range	(xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Paerlware, annular	1790-1820	1805	2	3,610
Pearlware, undecorated	1780-1830	1805	4	7,220
Whiteware, poly hand painted	1826-1870	1848	2	3,696
Whiteware, undecorated	1813-1900	1860	22	40,920
			30	55,446

55,446 ÷ 30 = 1848.2

Using a grab collection, a total of 32 artifacts were recovered. These included 22 undecorated whiteware ceramics, two poly hand painted whiteware ceramics, one stamped whiteware ceramic, four undecorated pearlware ceramics, two pearlware annular ceramics, and one ginger beer bottle fragment. The surface materials were found scattered over an area about 140 feet north-south by 140 feet east-west.

A total of nine shovel tests were placed in a north-south by east-west cruciform pattern from the central point of the surface scatter and excavated to a depth of about 1.0 feet. All of these tests were negative, revealing only uniform plowing depths and soil conditions.

The artifacts recovered from surface finds are suggestive of an antebellum to postbellum period dispersed settlement at this location. The mean ceramic date for the collection is 1848.2, although clearly the abundance of whitewares suggests a somewhat later date (Table 5). Quite often dispersed settlement structures of this type were converted to use as tenant houses once slavery was abolished at the conclusion of the Civil War. Mill's *Atlas of 1825* shows two subscribers in the general area, Benjamin Lavender and James Coker (see Figure 18). Later soil maps of Clarendon County from the United States Department of Agriculture, published in 1911, indicate that a structure was present there at that

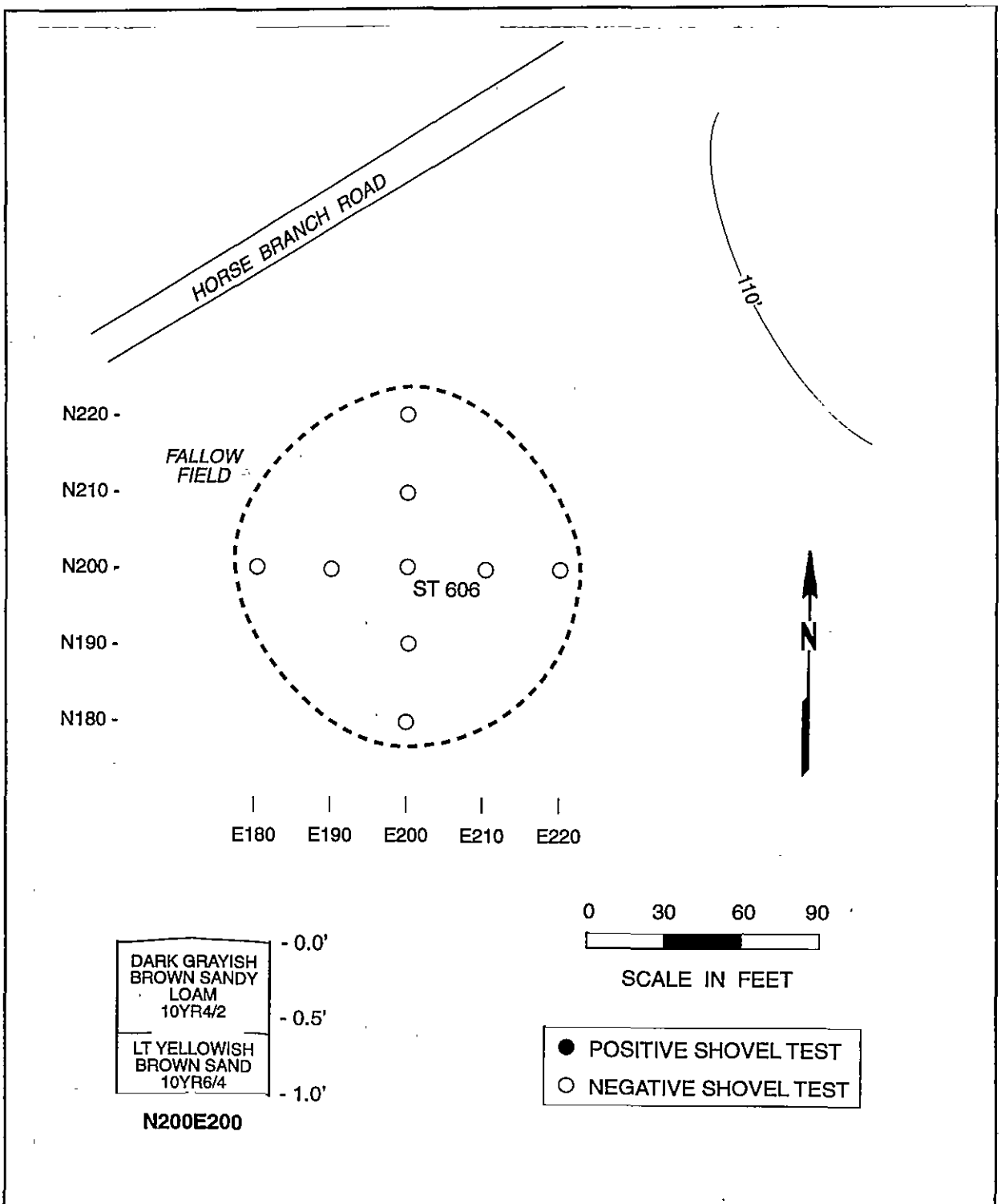

Figure 22. Map of site 38CR96 and shovel test profile.

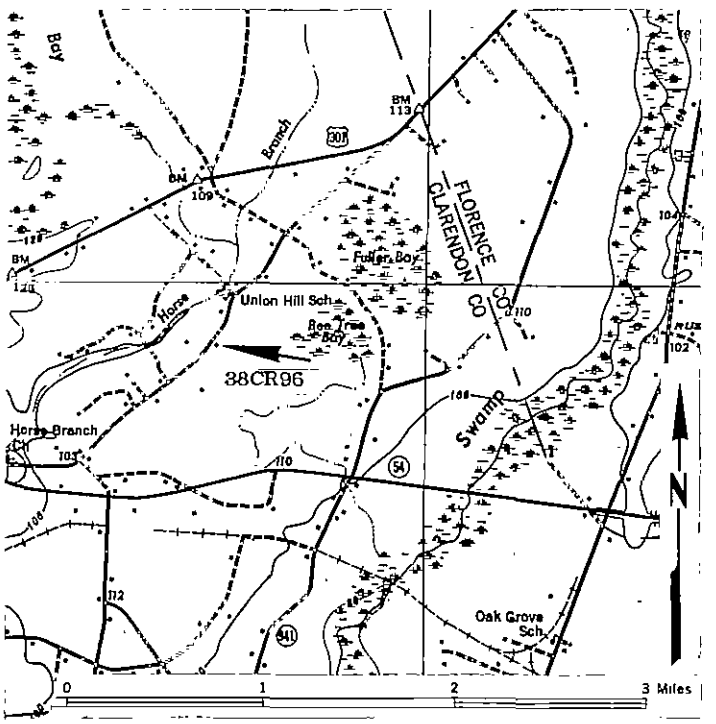

Figure 23. Site 38CR96 (USGS Lake City 15' 1946:1:62,000).

time. The USGS Lake City Quadrangle also shows this structure in 1946 (Figure 23).

The soil profile 38CR96, revealed about 0.6 foot of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) sandy loam over a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) subsoil to 1.0 foot. The soil profile for 38CR96 is similar in nature to Lynchburg soils and is more intact than others encountered in the survey.

Although the data sets present at this site are limited to historic ceramics, this site has produced a wide range of artifacts. With a mean ceramic date range form 1780 to 1900 it seems likely that 38CR96 may be able to address at lest a narrow range of research questions. For example, a controlled surface may be able to address the question of intra-site patterning and, with sufficiently small collection units, may even be able to identify specific work areas. If additional testing were to document that fringe areas are not only intact, nut also offer either stratigraphic data or the possibility of subsurface features, then the range of questions the site could address may be broadened.

As a result, we recommend this site as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. If the site can be avoided by construction activities, essentially protecting the data through green spacing, then no additional investigations are necessary.

If preservation in place is not feasible, a three stage testing operation consisting of controlled surface collections, close interval testing to establish site boundaries, and limited formal excavations. This would help clarify eligibility and allow a final determination.

38FL358

Site 38FL358 is a surface scatter of prehistoric lithics. The site is located 700 feet west of the intersection of Park Avenue (Olanta Highway) and Sheep Island Road (S-21-73). The central UTM coordinates are N3751000 E597760. The site is situated in a seasonally fallow field at an elevation of about 103 feet AMSL. The field rises slightly to the west. The soils are identified as Goldsboro sandy loam and surface visibility at the time of the survey was about 75% (Figure 24).

Artifacts were first encountered in an open field about 400 feet east of a drainage associated with Douglas Swamp. Using a grab surface collection, a total of nine quartz flakes were recovered. The surface materials were found scattered over an area about 70 feet north-south by 75 feet east-west. A total of nine shovel tests were placed in a north-south by east-west cruciform pattern from the central point of the surface scatter and excavated to a depth of about 1.4 feet. No artifacts were recovered from any of the shovel tests.

The soil profile in this area, revealing

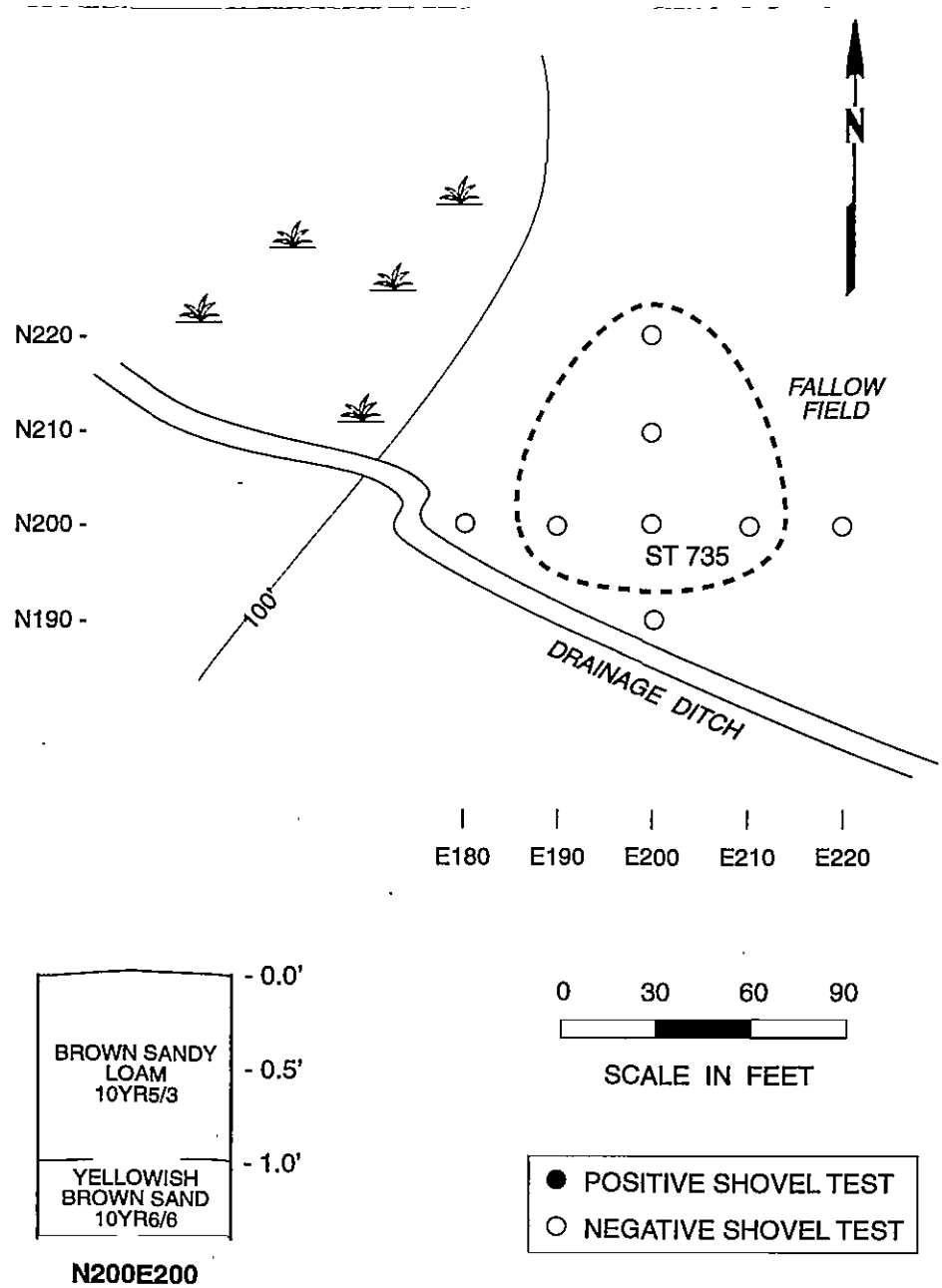

Figure 24. Map of site 38FL358 and shovel test profile.

about 1.0 foot of brown (10YR5/3) sandy loam over brownish yellow (10YR6/6) subsoil, suggests that the profile has been mixed, probably from extensive cultivation activities.

Data sets from this site are very sparse. The assemblage is limited and the shovel tests failed to reveal any materials at all. There is no indication of intact features and no material suggestive of features (such as fire cracked rock) was found during surface inspection. In addition, the site has been subjected to extensive plowing which has likely destroyed a majority of the site.

It seems unlikely that this site has the ability to address any of the numerous research questions posed. Unfortunately, the lack of any diagnostic materials eliminates assigning temporal placement. Consequently, this site is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places and no further management activity is recommended.

38FL359

Site 38FL359 is a surface scatter of historic ceramics. The site is located 60 feet west of the intersection of Park Avenue (Olanta Highway) and Sheep Island Road (S-21-73). The central UTM coordinates are N3750980 E597880. The site is situated in a fallow field at an elevation of about 103 feet AMSL. The soils are identified as Goldsboro sandy loam and surface visibility at the time of the survey was about 75% (Figure 25).

Artifacts were first encountered in an open field about 1,100 feet east of a drainage associated with Douglas Swamp. Using a grab collection, a total of 11 artifacts were recovered. These included one undecorated whiteware ceramic, one blue glass fragment, four milk glass fragments, one amethyst glass fragment, three clear glass fragments, and one sad-iron base. The surface materials were found scattered over an area about 70 feet north-south by 75 feet east-west.

A total of nine shovel tests were placed in a north-south by east-west cruciform pattern from the central point of the surface scatter and excavated to a depth of about 1.4 feet. All of these tests were negative, revealing only uniform plowing depths and soil conditions.

The artifacts recovered from surface finds are suggestive of a late postbellum period dispersed settlement at this location. The mean ceramic date range for the collection is 1813 to 1900.

The soil profile for 38FL359, revealed about 0.6 foot of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) sandy loam over a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) subsoil to 1.0 foot. A great deal of soil mixing is indicated from the profile, probably due to agricultural activities.

The data sets present at this site are limited to historic ceramics, glass, and one sad-iron. No features were recovered and no brick was observed in the field or any of the shovel tests. No faunal remains were encountered. There are, consequently, very few data present to address any of the pertinent research questions associated with either antebellum or postbellum tenant life.

Consequently, site 38FL359 is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Pending the concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office, no further management activities are necessary.

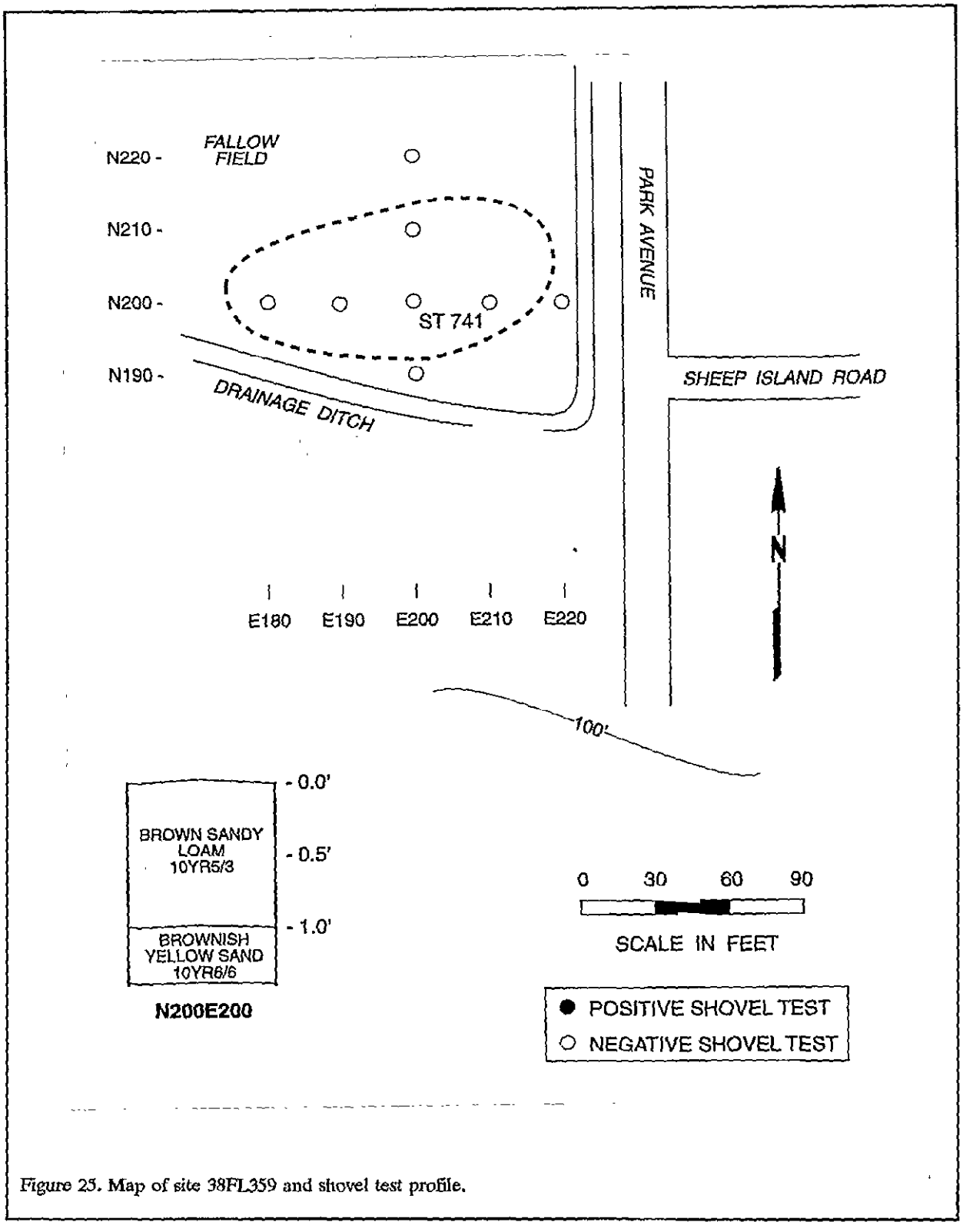

Figure 25. Map of site 38FL359 and shovel test profile.

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

As a result of the intensive survey of the 26 mile-long proposed Scottsville to Lake City 69 kV transmission line six new sites have been identified and assessed (Table 6). Of these sites, only one (38CR96) is recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. The remaining five sites are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The potentially eligible site has produced a wide range of historic materials. Site 38CR96 is a site possibly associated with the antebellum period which continued to be used into the late nineteenth or early twentieth century. Although no structural remains are present, sites of this type tend to be rare in this portion of South Carolina.

Thus a whole range of questions are possible based on the site's context along with extended land use patterns which evolved over time. What was the primary function of this site? As suggested earlier, was this a location initially settled early in the nineteenth century, being used as slave housing prior to the Civil War and tenant housing afterwards? Is it a yeoman farmsite or even perhaps a small owner's residence. As it is, a number of these questions can be explored through comparative studies of land use patterns found at other Middle Coastal Plain farm sites.

These are important, and worthwhile questions which would help us better understand evoloving land use patterns found in the Carolina Middle would help us better account for the differences we sometimes see in the historical record.

Yet, these questions must be evaluated in terms of the data set's ability to address them. In other words, significant questions are, at times, easier to develope than it is to find data sets with the ability (or integrity) to answer those questions.

In the case of 38CR96, the potential for integrity is very high. Quite often even plowed fields will yield intact subsurface features. Thus, it is recommended that this site is potentially eligible under Criterion D, that the site has the potential to yield information important to history.

General Observations

When the sites are examined by Soil Capability Classification, 66% of the sites occur on Capability Class II soils with moderate limitations. One site, or 17%, is found on Class I soils with few limitations, and one site, or 17%, occur on Class VII soils with very severe limitations.

The reliance on Class II soils seems to be about the same for both prehistoric and historic sites. In other words, it seems that both Native Americans and tenant farmers sought to avoid, if possible, both the very well drained Class I soils and the very poorly drained Class III soils.

Table 6.
Archaeological Sites Identified in the Scottsville-Lake City Survey Corridor

Site Number	Components	Site Size (ft.)	Quadrangle	Eligibility
38SU274	Lithic/pottery	60x20	Mayesville	NE
38CR94	Historic	300x300	Turbeville	NE
38CR95	Lithic	5x5	Olanta	NE
38CR96	Historic	140x140	Olanta	PE
38FL358	Lithic	70x70	Olanta	NE
38FL359	Historic	70x75	Olanta	NE

NE = not eligible for inclusion on the National Register; PE = potentially eligible for inclusion

Certainly this is understandable for the historic period — the Class I soils were likely too valuable to be squandered as building sites, while the Class III (as well as the Class V and VII soils) were simply too inhospitable. Prehistoric choices are a little more difficult to understand, but it may that Class I soils are too well drained to support mast producing hardwood vegetation that prehistoric groups favored, or that these soils tended to be slightly further away from the swamp margin — a favorite spot for prehistoric occupation. It is possible that Class II soils offer a compromise of access and drainage that made them attractive to groups throughout history.

When the soils are examined by individual series, rather than capability classification, one is most often associated with archaeological sites — the somewhat poorly drained Lynchburg series, accounting for 33.3% of all site locations. Three of the remaining sites, all prehistoric, are found on well drained to moderately well drained soils. Although there are five soil series for the six sites, the three prehistoric sites are all found on well drained or moderately well drained soils whereas the historic sites are all found on very poorly drained or somewhat poorly drained soils.

As suggested earlier, historic site locations are all found associated with agriculturally marginal soils and road systems, whereas the prehistoric sites are found associated with swamp edge locations These findings are consistent with discoveries from previous upper coastal plain surveys (see, for example, Taylor 1984, Trinkley and Adams 1992, and Trinkley 1996).

Recommendations

Those sites evaluated as not eligible, pending State Historic Preservation Office concurrence, require no additional management activities. This means that Santee Cooper need not make any special provisions for their protection or preservation.

The one site evaluated as potentially eligible, pending State Historic Preservation Office concurrence, should either be avoided (green spaced) or should receive additional testing. For the current project, we anticipate that the site can be relatively easily avoided by ground disturbing activities, either by slight realignment of corridors or by ensuring that no poles are located within the boundaries of the site and that all movement across the sites is done only during dry weather with vehicles having rubber tires. The contractor should be notified that these sites are off-limits for staging areas, repeated access, or parking.

This green spacing approach is likely the most cost effective, assuming that avoidance is possible. It is also likely to be the most timely approach, allowing Santee Cooper to commence construction as soon as the State Historic Preservation Office has concurred.

In addition, it is important that Santee Cooper place this site location on their permanent routing maps to ensure that the site is not subsequently damaged by transmission line maintenance. Maintenance should follow the same restrictions as construction, with access only during dry weather and only by vehicles with rubber tires. Tracked vehicles should not be permitted on archaeological sites because of potential rutting and compaction problems. It is important to emphasize that transmission lines, once built, must be maintained and repaired, and that all of this work must avoid impacting the green spaced archaeological remains.

Finally, it is possible that in spite of this intensive survey, additional archaeological remains may be encountered during construction. If concentrations of pottery, ceramics, arrowheads, bottles, or other remains are identified, all work in the site area should cease until the site can be assessed by either Chicora Foundation or the State Historic Preservation Office. The contractor should be notified to be alert to the possibility of additional archaeological remains.

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